

Sociology and Social ... Research ...

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL

The Concept of the Group	83
MARIE L. BORGATTA	
Areas for Research in Leisure	90
MARTIN H. NEUMEYER	
Teaching Sociology by Radio and Television	97
THOMAS F. HOULT	
Teaching Sociology via Television	102
MARVIN B. SUSSMAN	
Teaching Sociology by Means of Television	108
R. A. SCHERMERHORN	
Measuring Group Opinion	113
L. K. NORTHWOOD	
Economic Motivation in Ethnic Relations .	119
RALPH R. IRELAND	
Racial Distance Changes in the United States	127
EMORY S. BOGARDUS	
Pacific Sociological News	136
Social Problems and Welfare	137
Peoples and Culture	150
Social Theory and Research	156
Social Fiction	166

VOL. 43

NOVEMBER-DECEMBER 1958

No. 2

YEARLY SUBSCRIPTION, \$3.50

SINGLE COPIES, 70 CENTS

Sociology and Social Research

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL

PUBLISHED BIMONTHLY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA
UNIVERSITY PARK, LOS ANGELES 7, CALIFORNIA

YEARLY SUBSCRIPTION, \$3.50

SINGLE COPIES, 70¢

Entered as second-class matter March 31, 1936, at the post office at Los Angeles, California, under the act of March 3, 1879.

Editor

Emory S. Bogardus

Managing Editor

Martin H. Neumeyer

News Notes Editor

Edward C. McDonagh

Associate Editors

Harvey J. Locke

George B. Mangold

Bessie A. McClenahan

Dennis C. McElrath

John E. Nordskog

James A. Peterson

Georges Sabagh

Maurice D. Van Arsdol, Jr.

Melvin J. Vincent

University of
Southern California

Advisory Editors

Jessie Bernard	Pennsylvania State University
Herbert Blumer	University of California
Leonard Broom	University of California, Los Angeles
Ernest W. Burgess	University of Chicago
F. Stuart Chapin	University of Minnesota
E. Franklin Frazier	Harvard University
John L. Gillin	University of Wisconsin
A. B. Hollingshead	Yale University
Katherine Jocher	University of North Carolina
William Kirk	Pomona College
Paul H. Landis	State College of Washington
Andrew W. Lind	University of Hawaii, Hawaii
George A. Lundberg	University of Washington
Radhakamal Mukerjee	Lucknow University, India
Meyer F. Nimkoff	Florida State University
Pitirim A. Sorokin	Harvard University
Leopold von Wiese	University of Cologne
Kimball Young	Northwestern University

Contributed materials which appear in *Sociology and Social Research* do not necessarily express the opinion or the policy of the editorial staff and publisher.

Articles published in this journal are indexed in *The International Index to Periodicals*, and abstracted in *Sociological Abstracts* and *Psychological Abstracts*.

PUBLISHED BY

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA PRESS
UNIVERSITY PARK
LOS ANGELES 7, CALIFORNIA

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL RESEARCH

●
November-December 1958

THE CONCEPT OF THE GROUP A BRIEF CONSIDERATION

MARIE L. BORGATTA
New York University

The rise of interest in group behavior since World War II suggests the need for consolidation of knowledge. However, any attempt to systematize theory about the group faces a situation which might be paraphrased from Gertrude Stein—A group is a group is a group. The term has been used with many sets of adjectives: open and closed, formal and informal, sentiment-oriented and interest-oriented, voluntary and compulsory, etc. Structure, in a relatively static sense, may be emphasized as the appropriate approach in one analysis while in another the attempt may center around some notion of a dynamic process or functional description.

There seems to be no argument as to whether "the group" exists as long as the term is used in a nongeneric sense. For all practical purposes we have as common knowledge that people have always lived in aggregates of one sort or another and probably will continue to do so. In the past some interest has been displayed in the origins of "the group," and both past and current interest sometimes has centered on the end forms the group may or should take. Discussion of either extreme invariably is metaphysical, and while provocative is also frustrating in its dependence upon speculation with no opportunity to either go back and recapitulate or go forward and see.

There is a rich literature comprising a basic core of descriptive materials on the group and group functioning. Further, implicit in most sociological writing is the assumption that what is being discussed is aggregate human action, first in one complex, then in another, but recognizing the same processes and the same characteristics which re-occur. However, the group as a concept did not become a target for organized study until the advent of sociology as an independent work

area. Nevertheless, the Greeks had explicit formulations about society and the division of labor, and certainly throughout recorded history, absence of sociological terminology notwithstanding, there has been recognition that outgroups compete with ingroups for political and military power; that there has been extensive differentiation of group structure in the religious domains; that kinship has ordered and controlled complex relationships among family members and between families; that in the economic sphere activities are both regulated and manipulated; and, more generally, that social life is normative. Until the development of organized sociological thought, however, there has not been the common ground necessary for analysis of qualities of structure and process.

What then is a group, sociologically speaking? Probably a conservative minimum definition is that a group consists of two or more persons in some form of interaction, and recognizable as possessing a unity. More specific definitions might involve considerations of size of the aggregate, intensity of participation, emotional quality of relationships, the kind of structural relationships, the stability of the internal structure, the complexity and interdependence of the members, the purposes served by the aggregate, and the relationship to other aggregates. But what is important to keep in mind is the minimum necessary for a group to exist at all. There cannot be a group without persons and there cannot be a group without interaction.

Some Early Variations of Group Definitions. One of the early characteristics of the discussion about group form was that it was tied in with some other topical consideration, such as social evolution, social control, social conflict, or social ethics. Further, *post hoc* it is obvious that sociologists tended to build comprehensive social theories, emphasizing general philosophical systems, so that teasing out material pertinent to the group concept becomes a task of bringing together odds and ends.

Following the work of Hegel, Comte, and Spencer and identification of the idea of social interaction as the group fabric, group phenomena were no longer commonly accounted for solely by reference to the individual members or solely attributed to the existence of some mystic bond which was imbued with a reality of its own. Since then in Europe the approach has been toward a definitional clarification of the concept of the group, while in recent years in America emphasis has been more on direct observation and empirical research.

Many of the early sociologists emphasized particular assumptions about group phenomena. Gumprowicz, for example, felt that the indi-

vidual is a group product, and hence the group rather than the individual is the basic unit of society. People bound by similar interests into groups tend to think and act as units, rather than as individuals, in their response to other groups. As an evolutionist he conceived of a selective process in which those groups most suited would survive in society. The realist point of view which Gumpłowicz represented was maintained as an important emphasis in the work of a number of others, LeBon and Vierkandt as early examples and McDougall as a later one.

Durkheim also believed in the reality of the group beyond the individual members. He felt that "social facts" were irreducible to individual facts and that the collective beliefs and practices of a group determine the distinguishing behavior of an individual. The group pattern, once established, becomes "real," exercising restraint over the individual by means of a "collective consciousness." According to Durkheim, group structures could be examined on the basis of "mechanistic solidarity" and "organic solidarity." He believed that the relatively undifferentiated type of group (mechanical solidarity) inevitably became more complex through a division of labor and a concomitant differentiation of parts. This latter polar type of group characterized by organic solidarity is based on mutual interdependence through specialization of functions. The collective conscience, being a product reinforced by many similarities, is most pronounced when mechanical solidarity prevails, and repressive law (rather than restitutive law) becomes the legal extension of the collective conscience. Thus, for Durkheim the group possesses a reality of its own which is distinguished from individual expressions and transcends any direct sum of them.

Similarly, Giddings assumes the group as a starting point. Groups may arise unconsciously as a natural product of individual activity which he calls "social composition" (e.g., the family). Contrasted with this are cooperative interest-oriented groups, which he calls "social constitution" (e.g., the state). Within the group, selection factors operate—social values—which affect ultimate survival of the group. "Consciousness of kind" refers to recognition of others as being similar, but the social mind to which he attributed a concrete reality is not given the prominence in his work which, for example, Durkheim gives to collective consciousness.

Thus, while some theorists emphasized the reality of the group, others assumed the reality and concerned themselves more with descriptive distinctions. Toennies, for example, places the emphasis of his analysis on a twofold classification of groups: (a) a group where interrelation-

ship of members is based on sentiment and personal interest is described by the term *Gemeinschaft*; (b) a group based on rational and objective self-interest and the calculated wish to participate as a means to an end is characterized by the term *Gesellschaft*. Toennies used these constructs for descriptive and elaborative purposes in much the same way that Max Weber employed his "ideal type" approach in his comparison of collectivities.

Max Weber, in his intensive use of the "ideal type" construct, focused on logically pure descriptive abstractions. The reality of the group is submerged in his conception, since action exists as the behavior of one or more individuals, and the group is the direct resultant of such action. His emphasis on manifestations of social behavior has caused him to be called "probabilistic" in his approach.

Emphases on Interaction Processes. The analysis of group behavior in terms of forms of interaction gets its firm start with Georg Simmel. Simmel displayed interest in the analysis of many phases of group form, and, while his treatment was not entirely systematic, it was broad in scope even in its briefness. For example, he considered such aspects as the relation of group size to the form of organization and its effect on the individual. He gave detailed attention to the dyad and the triad and their manifestations in society. He also discussed at length the forms of superordination and subordination, providing illustrations exhibiting them in society. In the process of studying secrecy and the secret society, he indicated the part played by knowledge of one another and communication among members and their influence on the forms of interaction. Although primarily interested in form, Simmel nevertheless discussed content and its relation to form. In a modern research sense, Simmel cannot be considered an empiricist; however, many of his theoretical formulations furnish a base for recent small group research.

Von Wiese also has conceptually anticipated many of the modern approaches to group study on an empirical basis. He emphasized attention to form, and used an ideal type approach to categorize (certain) patterns of social interaction within the group. The contributions of von Wiese are frequently considered to overlap those of Simmel.

Cooley may be considered representative of another emphasis framed in interaction theory. In contrast with Simmel and von Wiese, Cooley stresses in his analysis a joint consideration of personality factors and their relationship to the form of the group. His approach, which is commonly associated with the identification of the "primary group" concept, led to the recognition of the importance of the coexistence of in-

formal and formal group structures. The present-day emphasis of small group research on interaction process is most reminiscent of the approach Cooley typifies.

Present-Day Approaches. A reading of current sociological materials pertinent to the group concept is likely to be disappointing to anyone expecting to find radically new contributions to the subject. The present period seems to be characterized by an extensive and intensive attempt to test and develop theory on the basis of empirical observation. This is not different from what Cooley did; it is only "bigger and better." Essentially the difference is that today there are available many tools that make it possible to gather kinds and quantities of data not hitherto within the grasp of the social scientist. Thus, what is new is not theory, but technology. It may be that through technology it will be possible to refine and develop the earlier wisdom into more adequate empirically based theory. On the other hand, the availability of resources does not mitigate the necessity of intelligent and imaginative thought, since machines can't think.

On this score, it is useful to recall Wilson's comment on the present status of the group concept, which "... is seen in the more careful definition of terms, the use of controlled observation, the diminution of a tendency toward unfounded generalization, the common realization of a need for systematization, the development of more effective methods and techniques of study, and the conjoining of theory and application."¹

Thus, we have specialized areas that help to fill in gaps in the general knowledge about the group. For example, the researcher has attempted to get closer to the people he studies. Participant observation techniques became popular largely as a result of volumes like Whyte's *Street Corner Society*. A current example of this approach is *When Prophecy Fails*.² The anthropological approaches and the clinical orientation on case material of the therapeutic professions have also influenced this development. In a sense, participant observation is an extension of the careful approach into a culture by the anthropologist who wishes to do effective field work. As an example of the direct cross-fertilization, we may view Strodbeck's research in the small group area dealing with parallel family situations in several cultures.³ This indicates the possible range of adaptation of the rigorous sociologist to the broadening of knowledge about the

¹ Logan Wilson, "The Sociography of Groups," in G. Gurvitch and W. E. Moore, Eds. (New York: Philosophical Library, 1945), p. 168.

² Leon Festinger, Henry W. Riecken, and Stanley Schachter, *When Prophecy Fails* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956).

³ Fred L. Strodbeck, "Husband-Wife Interaction over Revealed Differences," *American Sociological Review*, 16: 468-73.

group through contact with anthropology. Conversely, the influence of sociology is apparent in the primarily anthropological study, *Three Navaho Households: A Comparative Study in Small Group Culture*, that was done by J. M. Roberts.⁴

Another area that has grown in recent years is situational testing. While there have been many forerunners, it was with the publication of the OSS volume, *Assessment of Men*, that interest was stimulated in the observation of actual behavior in test situations, rather than in test scores on paper and pencil questionnaires. An early article by Bronfenbrenner and Newcomb⁵ suggested a potential for research which has yet to be realized. Situational observation is broadly related to interests in many other areas, including (1) the group therapy approaches stemming from Roger's nondirective therapy and Moreno's psychodrama; (2) educational approaches, such as Harvard's case study method and the democratic leadership emphasis stemming from Dewey's philosophy and Lewin's experiments in authoritarian and democratic organization; and (3) industrial and military approaches such as Bass's leaderless group discussion.

A great deal of interest in recent years has gone into improving observation techniques. Probably the first to receive wide attention was Chapple's chronograph recording,⁶ but by far the most known system of observation at this point is Bales's Interaction Process Analysis. Bales's recording system was not only an explicitly ordered one but was based on a substantial theoretical framework. It also came at a time when other material facilities for the laboratory were readily available, including observation or interview rooms with one-way mirror setups, inexpensive sound recording equipment, etc. Other observation systems that have achieved some prominence in research include those of Benne and Sheats⁷ and Carter,⁸ but additional systems or modifications will continue to be constructed to meet the needs presented by specific research.

⁴ J. M. Roberts, *Three Navaho Households: A Comparative Study in Small Group Culture* (Cambridge, Mass.: Peabody Museum of American Archeology and Ethnology, 1951).

⁵ Urie Bronfenbrenner and Theodore M. Newcomb, "Improvisations—An Application of Psychodrama in Personality Diagnosis," *Sociatry*, 1: 367-82.

⁶ E. D. Chapple, "Measuring Human Relations: An Introduction to the Study of Interaction of Individuals," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 22: 2-147.

⁷ K. D. Benne and P. Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," *Journal of Social Issues*, 4: (Issue 2) 41-49.

⁸ L. F. Carter, "Recording and Evaluating the Performance of Individuals as Members of Small Groups," *Personnel Psychology*, 7: 477-84.

Concomitant with the development of laboratories has been the increase in testing of models and limited range theory. On the one hand, there have been quite systematic approaches to testing theory such as is exemplified by Festinger and his associates.⁹ On the other, there has been model construction of the more limited and restricted type as represented by a paper such as Hays and Bush's "A Study of Group Action."¹⁰

The interest that arose in the sociometric test approaches has led to much serious work. Early in the development of this area, Jennings made an important contribution in her systematic study *Leadership and Isolation*, and since then many other contributions have been published. At this point much of the interest in sociometric research seems to have abated, to be replaced by a more systematic and purposive use of peer and other ratings.

A final area we may mention here is that of social perception or interpersonal perception, largely arising from the work of Cottrell and his students.¹¹ The literature in this area is growing rapidly, but severe criticisms and limitations exist as challenges to current research.¹²

Topics of interest in small group research continue to be leadership, morale, efficiency, solidarity, sociability, structure, etc. Not all the activity, however, is productive. Some sociologists still feel it is important to justify their assumptions on the basis of philosophical "reasonableness," when the issue may be one which can be resolved by empirical test. For example, the affirmation of a recent author that groups are real may be contrasted with the approach of researchers who have assumed that groups are real and then proceeded to measure consequences that cannot be attributed to the group members as individuals.

In the past, fruitful insights have been gained with limited resources, and it is hoped that increases in empirical knowledge will lead to crystallization of systematic theory. In terms of the definition of the group, the historical perspective seems to point up a simple lesson. Any definition of the group is arbitrary, but the definition in any specific instance must be determined by its usefulness, with full awareness of the limitations involved.

⁹ L. Festinger, "Theory of Social Comparison Processes," *Human Relations*, 7: 117-40.

¹⁰ David G. Hays and Robert Bush, "A Study of Group Action," *American Sociological Review*, 19: 693-701.

¹¹ Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., and Rosalind F. Dymond, "The Empathic Responses: A Neglected Field for Research," *Psychiatry*, 12: 355-59.

¹² Lee J. Cronbach, "Processes Affecting Scores on 'Understanding of Others' and 'Assumed Similarity,'" *Psychological Bulletin*, 52: 177-93.

AREAS FOR RESEARCH IN LEISURE AND RECREATION

MARTIN H. NEUMEYER
University of Southern California

Leisure and recreation are fruitful fields for social research. Sociological studies of these areas of research are not nearly as numerous as research developments in other phases of inquiry.¹ The ramifications of these subjects provide abundant opportunities for every scientific discipline to explore certain phases, including the social aspects with which sociology is primarily concerned.

The literature of leisure and recreation ranges from reports of serious and authoritative studies to publications which may be characterized as "moralistic," designed to bring about specific reforms. The great body of publications is of a more or less practical nature, including administrative types of research undertaken to improve the organization, personnel, facilities, planning, and programs of activities. Publications on sports, games, hobbies, and numerous other forms of leisure pursuits are voluminous.

Various disciplines have participated in both empirical research and in conceptional or theoretical clarification. The specific techniques of research used in a wide variety of studies include the historical, statistical, survey, ecological, case study, interview, questionnaire, participant observational, experimental, comparative, or a combination of these. The three most common methods of research used to study recreation interests, activities, facilities, and resources are (1) the recreation survey, ranging from comprehensive studies to those limited to specific items; (2) the questionnaire, including check lists, the pooling of information or opinions, and the collection of a variety of numerical data; and (3) the recreation interview or case study method.

It is difficult to classify the major areas for research. Denney and Meyersohn,² in classifying the literature on leisure, point out that there have been seven major streams of research since 1900: (1) general consumer research; (2) numerous historical studies; (3) a variety of studies stimulated by education, social work, and recreation; (4) the

¹ Cf. *Sociology and Social Research*, 42:396-472.

² Cf. Reuel Denney and Mary Lea Meyersohn, "A Preliminary Bibliography on Leisure," *The American Journal of Sociology*, 52:602-15. The entire issue is devoted to "The Uses of Leisure."

"Play Movement," studied on its individual rather than its social side; (5) psychological research of leisure and the media of mass communication; (6) studies influenced by sociopolitical theories; and (7) the production and control side of mass media of amusements. They found it convenient to classify the variety of scattered studies under twenty more specialized headings, including a bibliography of bibliographies.

In order to simplify the classification and to abbreviate the descriptions of the areas of research of special interest to sociologists, eight major categories will be used. This list is not complete, for it does not indicate the wide ramifications of the subject, but it points out certain focal points for further investigation.³

1. *Leisure and Recreation in a Changing Society.* One cannot understand the significance of the "new leisure" without a consideration of the impact of a changing society. Social changes, historic events, and a new spirit have affected both the quantity and the uses of leisure. Automation is one of the outstanding trends in modern society. Its implications are not as yet fully realized, nor have they been sufficiently explored. The two world wars, the depression of the 1930's, and postwar eras of prosperity produced revolutionary changes. None of these eras of rapid social change have been adequately studied from the point of view of leisure. It is obvious that both the extent of leisure and the recreation trends have been affected by such factors as the geographic setting and the changing physical environment, population growth and mobility, urbanization, science and technology, socioeconomic conditions, political factors, the expansion of education, and the changing community life. Few objective studies of these variables have been made.

2. *Historical Studies.* Studies of the historical developments of recreation have been made for some time. Publications dealing with

³ For a study of leisure and recreation in their sociological aspects, including suggestions for further study and bibliographies, see Martin H. and Esther S. Neumeyer, *Leisure and Recreation* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958), especially Chap. XV on "Recreation Research." For suggestions for further research on special subjects, consult Harold D. Meyer and Charles K. Brightbill, *Recreation: Text and Readings* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 410-27 on "Planning and Research," and *Community Recreation* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956); Florence G. Robbins, *The Sociology of Play, Recreation, and Leisure Time* (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1955); Jesse F. Steiner, *Americans at Play* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933); and George A. Lundberg, Mirra Komarovsky, and Mary Alice McNerny, *Leisure: A Suburban Study* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1934).

popular recreation are listed by Dulles.⁴ John Durant and Otto Bettman⁵ give a graphic picture of the development of sports in America. Clarence E. Rainwater⁶ traces the origin, stages, transitions, and trends of the playground movement in the United States. Others have attempted to bring the data regarding the recreation movement up to date. Few studies have been made of the recreation developments in other lands and of world trends, which are fields of research of major importance.

3. *Recreation Interests, Activities, Habits, and Attitudes.* Numerous studies have been made of recreation preferences and interests, types of leisure activities, and recreation habits and attitudes. What people do during their leisure time represents a dynamic clue to their preferences and wishes, but it is not always possible for them to engage in the best-liked activities. The questionnaire technique is the most common research device used to ascertain the recreation interests and activities of groups of people. Quite often questionnaires include lists of items for checking purposes to discover which activities are most commonly engaged in, those best liked, and the ones that consume the greatest amount of time. When the data are correlated with such variables as age, sex, race, social class, intelligence, education, season of the year, and community conditions, it is possible to get at the dynamic factors that influence what people do during their leisure.⁷ Recreation interviews make it possible to obtain similar results, also personal reactions of the interviewees, but the method is more time consuming. Few studies of this type have taken into consideration the multifarious background variables of the groups studied.

4. *Personality and Group Factors.* Sociologists have described personality as the sum and organization of all the traits that make up the person and that condition his role in society. These include the physical, intellectual, emotional, motivational, character, social expressional, and related aspects. It is apparent that what one does during one's free time has a profound effect on personality, and personal traits and conditions

⁴ Foster R. Dulles, *America Learns to Play: A History of Popular Recreation, 1607-1940* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940).

⁵ *Pictorial History of American Sports: From Colonial Times to the Present* (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1952). Compare Bellamy Partridge and Otto Bettman, *As We Were, 1850-1900* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946); and Robert W. Henderson, *Early American Sport* (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1953).

⁶ *The Play Movement in the United States* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1922). Compare Charles F. Doell and Gerald B. Fitzgerald, *A Brief History of Parks and Recreation in the United States* (Chicago: Athletic Institute, 1954); and George Hjelte, *The Administration of Public Recreation* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940).

⁷ One of the early quantitative measurements of the play life of children, using a check list and other items, was made by Harvey C. Lehman and Paul A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activities* (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1927).

affect leisure pursuits. The effects and relationships are reciprocal. Few investigators have endeavored to discover the numerous possible relationships between recreation and the total personality.⁸ The uses of leisure may either integrate or disintegrate personality, depending upon the kinds of activities engaged in and the responses to them. Conversely, the degree of integration of personality affects the uses of leisure. Standard tests of intelligence, temperament, and the broader personality inventories enable investigators to ascertain some of the possible relations of recreation to personality traits, but these instruments of research have their limitations. They must be accompanied by other types of studies, especially those designed to measure the effects of social relationships.

Group aspects of recreation are of special importance to sociologists. Recreation in the primary or small groups and the larger secondary groups; the impact of the underlying social processes, notably competition; social differentiation and stratification, accommodation and assimilation; suggestion and imitation; the crowd phases, such as amusement fads and the "band wagon" tendency; and the effects of culture: all these afford unique opportunities for social research. Even though the group aspects are usually regarded as the core of sociological research, with few exceptions, these areas for research remain largely unexplored. Their ramifications include nearly all of social life.

5. *Problems of Leisure.* The literature on leisure is replete with discussions of the problems involved, but much of it is of a "reformistic" rather than scientific nature. The broader aspects of social disorganization and social deviation have been explored, but their relationship to leisure is difficult to ascertain. However, certain problems of the uses of leisure have been studied. Gangs and peer groups have been analyzed by Thrasher, Whyte, Hollingshead, Cohen, and others, but there are many unexplored aspects. Differential studies of gang and youth groups in different social strata of society and cultural settings, the conditions and processes of gang formation, and the effects of increased leisure need further consideration. The Chicago study⁹ of the relation of recreation to delinquency was comprehensive, but no comparable study has been made of any other community. Alcoholism, drug addiction, vice, and related problems of social deviation have become national concerns. Typological studies of conditioning factors, better research techniques and sampling procedures, and more careful delineation of research projects are needed before extensive progress can be made in the analysis of be-

⁸ A notable effort in this direction has been made by S. R. Slavson, *Recreation and the Total Personality* (New York: Association Press, 1946).

⁹ Cf. Ethel Shanas and Catherine E. Dunning, *Recreation and Delinquency: A Study of Five Selected Chicago Communities* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942).

havior problems, especially from the point of view of leisure.

Considerable progress has been made in the use of recreation therapy for the physically and mentally handicapped. These studies have been made chiefly by those who have had special training in recreation therapy, psychiatry, physical education, and related fields.¹⁰ Scientific studies of the phenomena of old age (gerontology) have advanced considerably; but the leisure aspects, as compared with the problems of income and health, have been neglected until recent years. What forms of vocational, avocational, and related activities are best suited to the aged?

6. *Commercial Aspects.* Commercialization in the field of leisure is phenomenal. Estimates of the total annual expenditures for recreation goods and services range from less than ten to more than twenty billion dollars a year.¹¹ Why do people go to commercial amusement places? What types of entertainment do they prefer? What are the effects of commercial recreation on individuals and on social groups? These and related questions remain partially unanswered.

7. *Mass Media of Entertainment.* Mass media of entertainment and communication represent perhaps the most significant recent development in recreation, some of which are highly commercialized. Television, radio, printed matter, and motion pictures are among the most popular means of mass entertainment today. They are characteristic aspects of our mass culture.

Except for certain specialized studies,¹² few investigations have dealt

¹⁰ Cf. Virginia Mae Axline, *Play Therapy: The Inner Dynamics of Childhood* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947); Valerie V. Hunt, *Recreation and the Handicapped* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955); Clark E. Moustakas, *Children and Play Therapy: A Key to Understanding Normal and Disturbed Emotions* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953); George T. Stafford, *Sports for the Handicapped* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947); and Fritz Redl and David Wineman, *Children Who Hate* (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1951).

¹¹ Cf. J. Frederic Dewhurst and Associates, *America's Needs and Resources: A New Survey* (New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1955), XI, "Recreation"; Harold D. Meyer and Charles K. Brightbill, *Community Recreation*, op. cit., 53-66; and *Road Maps of Industry, No. 1080* (New York: The National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1956).

¹² The series of studies of motion pictures and children, made during the 1930's under the auspices of The Payne Fund, Inc., were fairly extensive. Radio and television audience measurement concerns are continuously testing the advertising potentials of these media. Examples: C. E. Hooper, Inc., A. C. Nielson Company, American Research Bureau, Pulse, Inc., Trendex, Inc., and Viodel, Inc. Summaries of television audience studies are found in a recent study by Leo Bogart, *The Age of Television: A Study of Viewing Habits and the Impact of Television on American Life* (New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing Company, 1956). For a regional study, see Everett C. Parker, David W. Barry, and Dallas W. Smythe, *The Television Radio Audience and Religion* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955). For a world-wide survey of mass communication, see *World Communications: Press, Radio, Film, Television* (New York: Department of Mass Communication, UNESCO, 1956).

specifically with the impact of mass communication and recreation. The difficulties in ascertaining the personal and social effects of mass entertainment are obvious, but some progress is being made in certain phases of the subject. The opportunities for research in this field are almost limitless.

8. *Community Recreation.* The community forms of recreation, including both public and semipublic or private agencies, have been studied extensively. Much of this type of research may be broadly defined as administrative research, but various academic disciplines (education, physical education, psychological and social sciences) have found fruitful areas for study.¹³ Various studies of public recreation, from local surveys to studies on the state and national levels, have been made; yet basic research programs are still inadequate. Likewise, there are unexplored areas for research in school-centered and church-centered recreation, in youth-serving and group-work agencies, adult leisure activities, especially industrial recreation, and the play life in homes. Few authentic studies of family recreation have been made.

Recreation leadership and personnel qualifications have been a major concern of all types of recreation agencies.¹⁴ The types of leadership, the basic qualifications of each type, the functions and influences, the training program, and the relative responsibilities of leaders in this field provide opportunities for various types of studies.

The importance of fact finding in leisure and recreation can hardly be exaggerated. This is true in other phases of life, but its significance has been emphasized more in some fields than in others. It is difficult to account for the lag in recreation research, except that the public has not fully recognized its importance. Possibly the greatest shortcoming in this field is the lack of basic research. Sociological research is primarily concerned with the social aspects of leisure and recreation, including the historical developments, institutional factors, types of leisure pursuits, social impact of free-time activities, and agencies of social control.

¹³ See references in footnotes 1, 2, 3, 6, 9, and 11. Compare George D. Butler, *Introduction to Community Recreation* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949); Howard G. Danford, *Recreation and the Community* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953); John H. Jenney, *Introduction to Recreation Education* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1955); Harold D. Meyer and Charles K. Brightbill, *Recreation Administration: A Guide to Its Practice* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956); and Jackson W. Anderson, *Industrial Recreation: A Guide to Organization and Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955).

¹⁴ Cf. H. Dan Corbin, *Recreation Leadership* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953); Gerald B. Fitzgerald, *Leadership in Recreation* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951); and M. Vannier, *Methods and Materials of Recreation Leadership* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1956).

In this brief description of the areas of research germane to the sociology of leisure and recreation, some aspects and details have been omitted or mentioned only in passing. New developments are occurring in every field of endeavor. For instance, the new age of automation affects nearly every phase of recreation and provides opportunities for studies of its various aspects, including the fields of research mentioned in this article.¹⁵ The above sketch is indicative of the main framework of research. Well-executed studies along these lines will contribute enormously to the understanding of the problems of leisure in modern society.

¹⁵ Cf. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 313 (September 1957). The entire issue, including 23 articles, is devoted to the major aspects of this subject.

TEACHING SOCIOLOGY BY RADIO AND TELEVISION

THOMAS FORD HOULT
Wayne State University

When departments of sociology begin using radio and television courses as an answer to the question of crowded classrooms and the teacher shortage, they must solve completely new problems. Perhaps the experience of the Wayne State University Department of Sociology and Anthropology can give guidance to those departments which have not yet begun using these mass media of communication. Our use of radio and TV began in the spring of 1956 and has continued to date without interruption—but not without controversy.

I

In the fall of 1955 our departmental chairman was asked by the radio department if introductory sociology would make a suitable radio course, and he consulted with me in my role as director of our junior college work. It was my feeling, and he concurred, that since sociology deals largely with abstractions, it is particularly appropriate for radio presentation. But some members of the departmental staff were not enthusiastic. Among the objections mentioned were fears about the exploitation of instructors and potential effects on on-campus enrollment, predictions that radio teaching would be ineffective because good teaching must be a two-way process, and the belief that instructors would inevitably water down their material (which, it was claimed, is inherently controversial) for fear of treading on the toes of important members of the community. Nevertheless, staff approval for a one-semester experiment, with me as the instructor, was obtained when possible ways of meeting the various objections were suggested.

The next question was that of teaching credit for the proposed course. This can be a real source of controversy, particularly where—as at Wayne—radio classes are broadcasts of tape recordings made in a live classroom situation. Some economy-minded administrators might claim that such an arrangement is little if any extra work for the instructor and should therefore involve no additional compensation. To forestall this type of claim, Wayne's faculty radio-TV committee has estab-

lished the principle that instructors whose classes are taped for later broadcast should receive twice the normal teaching credit as a minimum, with more for radio sections having a large number of registrants. The justification is that radio instructors are under an increased strain while being recorded, and they must make special arrangements to bridge the physical gap between radio students and the classroom.

Another point that should be settled in advance is the disposition of used tapes. Before I agreed to undertake the radio course, I found that I could have the tapes destroyed or erased shortly after broadcast. I did not wish to have them used, without recompense to me, in some subsequent semester. This attitude is approved by our faculty radio-TV committee, which upholds the view that one should have the right to control use of one's lectures much as authors and publishers control copyrighted material.

II

Conducting a class that is being tape-recorded involves only a few minor differences from the ordinary class. Timing—with the Wayne setup—is no problem, since the broadcast time allotted to each credit class is one hour whereas classes run only fifty minutes. Studio personnel use music to fill in any amount of time that is not used by instructors.

Students in the live class must, of course, be oriented to the situation, but it does not take them long to ignore the neck microphone worn by Wayne radio instructors. They do not even seem to mind the fact that their questions and comments must be repeated in essence by the instructor for the benefit of the radio listeners. Some instructors have tried to handle this problem by having floor microphones set up in several places around the classroom, but I did not care for this solution, since it meant that the recording would pick up all the extraneous classroom noises.

One problem that had to be solved was use of the blackboard. Although sociology is largely abstract, occasionally it is handy to write unfamiliar phrases and words on the blackboard or to sketch diagrams. Therefore, I continued this practice even when recording, but while writing or sketching I would describe the process for the radio listeners. I soon found, however, that some things were so complex I was confusing the radio audience. This necessitated careful advance planning that involved going through my lecture notes well in advance and preparing mimeographed reproductions of the more complicated blackboard diagrams I wished to use. These were sent out to members of the radio class, helping me to keep in fairly constant touch with them.

Other contacts helped to lessen the physical isolation of the radio students. For example, soon after registration I obtained a list of the radio registrants (only sixteen the first semester) and sent each a semester plan including test dates, names of the texts, and reading assignments. The assignments were relatively easy to handle, since our department uses a common text and a book of outside readings for all introductory sections. Thus, the radio students did not have to come in to the library for outside work. They *were* required to come to the campus four times for tests on the evenings of the days when no recordings were made because the classroom students were being tested. (Incidentally, radio and classroom students did equally well on the tests.)

In addition to the foregoing types of contact, I urged radio listeners to write or phone me if they had questions or wished to make comments. I answered as many of these as seemed appropriate at the recording session following their receipt. Others I answered with a personal letter or phone call. Many communications were received from noncredit listeners. A few were critical, but most were enthusiastic about the insights gained from the sociological point of view.

Even though tape-recording a class for later broadcast creates the problems mentioned, it has had at least one salutary effect on my own teaching. The thought that some of my colleagues might listen to the broadcasts encouraged me to be particularly careful about the claims I made and the material I introduced. I found that I was no longer tempted to make generalizations for which there is little empirical support but which create student reaction that is ego-satisfying to the instructor. This probably helps to explain the complete absence of pressure from the community to tone down my lectures, even though, with the exception mentioned, I made absolutely no subject-matter changes from the lectures I formerly gave in unrecorded classes. Sex, including some of the more startling details about deviant patterns, religion, business, ethics, and segregation and class stratification in Detroit were all explored. Despite use of such topics, and despite my own permissive attitudes and liberal socioeconomic orientation, no demands were made to take me off the air. This suggests that sociology classes conducted with a reasonable regard for the standards of scientific accuracy can be publicly disseminated because they will create light, not heat, and thus will not arouse partisan emotions unduly.

III

When I reported to our staff on the results and procedures of the first semester's radio class, they agreed to let the experiment continue on a more or less indefinite basis. I therefore gave another radio section during the following semester. Since then we have offered courses in anthropology and criminology, and all of them have been received enthusiastically. Many of us hope to continue the program if funds and university policy permit.

Meanwhile, several of my colleagues and I have begun some television work. In television we find the same problems as in radio, except that the problems and strain are tenfold at least. To compensate, our university radio-TV committee has decided that we should receive three hours teaching credit for every half hour on TV. This is a minimal standard that other schools would do well to emulate.

For my initial television effort, I agreed to moderate a series of non-credit programs on great inventions. I hoped to promote the sociological point of view regarding the part played by the culture base, social change, and the like, in the invention process. I found, however, that even educational television stations are staffed by professionals who, though friendly and interested, are mainly concerned with technical smoothness rather than depth. This explains the details of their suggestions for a television presentation of introductory sociology that is now in the planning stage here. Most of them want it to consist of a lecturer alone. They feel a classroom situation would present technical problems for which there is no good solution. But it seems important to convince them that good education is indeed a two-way process and that the interest and stimulation of a live classroom situation not only would compensate for poor camera angles, but would help prevent an instructor from simply pouring out his own thoughts unchecked by student reaction. It also seems vital that we hold to the idea that members of our department alone, not professional TV producers and directors, are competent to decide what should be presented. The latter, however, will be helpful in solving the problem of visual aids. Even with a subject as abstract as sociology, there appears to be little excuse for using TV if visuals do not play a large part in the presentation. Just how this difficulty can be handled I do not yet know. We may have to evolve a whole new approach that will eventually have a significant impact on regular classroom teaching.

IV

To summarize, then, the use of radio and television for teaching sociology is stimulating, but creates many new problems. Advocates of the new media must convince those who resist change and they must face up to the consequences of the change. Radio and television may, for example, become a real threat to marginal instructors and, in the absence of proper control, they can be used by economy-minded administrators as a technique for exploiting the more capable. To be effective, they must include special measures to overcome the handicap of physical distance between teacher and student, and to remain sociologically meaningful instructors must resist suggestions that they should concentrate on being "smooth" rather than profound. These are knotty problems, but the Wayne experience has shown that, with sufficient effort, they can be solved.

TEACHING SOCIOLOGY VIA TELEVISION: GAINS AND LOSSES

MARVIN B. SUSSMAN
Western Reserve University

Explanatory Note. The authors of the following two papers, Marvin B. Sussman and Richard A. Schermerhorn, on the problems of teaching sociology via television are members of the same department of sociology and have been "TV professors," teaching sociology over station WEWS-CBS in Cleveland, Ohio. Professor Schermerhorn in the spring of 1954 gave Introductory Sociology, while Professor Sussman in the spring of 1957 offered Urban Sociology, both courses being a regular part of Western Reserve University's telecourse program. Since 1951, W.R.U. offers regular University courses on TV for credit.¹ Students who desire credit purchase a Telecourse Guide (abstract of all 45 lectures) prepared by the instructor² and any textbooks that may be used and then view lectures, each for a half hour 3 times a week for 15 weeks. During the course, the instructor usually requires extensive written work, and at the completion of the course a final examination is taken by credit students.

Many other persons view the lectures, and by purchasing the Telecourse Guide (sales range from 100 to 900) they can follow the lectures more closely. These individuals would be the equivalent of audit students attending a regular University course. In addition, the course attracts many other viewers, numbered up to 20,000, of which the homemaker predominates.³ The type of programming at Western Reserve over a commercial station is different from a closed TV circuit in which a TV picture is beamed to a given class or number of classes within a school. At Western Reserve two courses are conducted each semester (a M.W.F. or T.Th.S. sequence), and each course carries three hours of University credit. At present the University, which has pioneered in this field of communication, is in its sixteenth series of college credit courses on TV.

¹ For a full report of this program see *Telecourses at Western Reserve University: A Summary Report of the First Three Years, 1951-1954* (Cleveland: Western Reserve University, September 1954) (mimeographed).

² While the supply lasts, a copy of the syllabus may be obtained by writing to the authors.

³ N. G. Halpern, *The Western Reserve University Telecourse Audience* (Cleveland: Western Reserve University, 1953) (duplicated).

Introduction. This paper is concerned with some of the pedagogical and professional problems of teaching sociology on TV. The methods used in obtaining data include (1) being a TV professor in the spring of 1957 and presenting a course called Urban Sociology three times a week, each presentation lasting a half hour, for a 15-week academic year; (2) conducting a series of informal interviews with colleagues who have taught on TV and with administrative personnel; and (3) survey of the literature concerned with various problems of television as a medium for mass education.

Growth of Educational TV. The growth of TV in education, while somewhat slow and spasmodic, has paralleled the general growth of the medium. News stories indicating new ventures in educational TV appear weekly. In the spring of 1958 Ohio State University initiated its first formal course of study for students in mathematics.⁴ This is a remedial course required for all those who do not pass the mathematics placement test for entrance to the University. Approximately a thousand students, or 25 per cent of the freshman class, were enrolled.

Learning and the problems of learning via television have attracted the attention of students in psychology and communications.⁵ Research reports present contradictory evidence, but generally indicate that learning of subject matter is equally good or often better via TV than in the classroom. These studies are "one shot" researches made at a given point in time and do not treat the intriguing problem of retention of learning. Does TV outdo the traditional instructional course in the retention of learning or vice versa?

Other questions for study concerning the effectiveness of teaching by TV include learning by the casual viewer. What kind of learning takes place when a casual viewer "catches" a few programs of a series in which there has been a continuous build-up of knowledge and concepts which have established the framework for current discussions? What kind of interpretations will a casual viewer make of a lecture on marital relationships in a family course if he did not see or hear the presentations concerned with the institutional setting in which family and marital relationships evolve? In our classrooms we "build up" knowledge, and presentations during the sixth week are based on the work of the previous

⁴ George E. Condon, "Hint of Future Seen in Ohio State Mathematics Course on TV," *Cleveland Plain Dealer*, March 22, 1958.

⁵ For a useful summary of the literature on learning via television up through 1956, see Hideya Kumata, *An Inventory of Instructional Television Research* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1957). Modified from a paper given at the twentieth annual meeting of the Ohio Valley Sociological Society, May 3, 1958, Cincinnati, Ohio.

five. On TV we are expected to teach, not necessarily to entertain, as is the case in a commercial program; so continuity in learning is anticipated from one program to the next. The invidious effect (if any) of casual viewing upon the learning and attitude formation is a fascinating area for future research.

Most television teaching sessions are telescoped into 30-minute periods. We need research as to whether this shortened time period does actually produce equal increments of learning when compared with the 50-minute classroom period and whether it is at all possible to condense into a 30-minute period materials which require 50 minutes to present.

Research in these areas is continuing at an accelerated rate by those who have pioneered in the development of the medium as an instrument for mass education and by others who are concerned about teacher shortages, improvement in teaching techniques, and costs of education.⁶

Pedagogical Gains and Losses. What does TV teaching mean to the professor in terms of preparation, relationships with students, use of materials, and his personal motivations and gratifications?

Teaching on TV requires far more intensive preparation than that required for the lecture hall. Even though most Western Reserve University telecourse professors do not present a Hollywood production, each has reported that extra effort has to go into the planning and presentation of materials.⁷ It is not that teaching in the classroom is poorer, but that teaching on TV literally means that the show must go on! The teacher is controlled by time, and, whether he feels like lecturing or not, he has to! Under TV conditions the professor cannot substitute a group discussion or a question period for the required lecture. Each presentation must be carefully prepared and timed. While professors will vary in the amount of time given to preparation (some write out every word and others simply outline their lecture and then speak extemporaneously), the lecture nevertheless has to be organized so as to maximize audience attention. A flip of the dial may tune the listener to a competitor's program of "John's Other Wife's Girl Friend." Even in the classroom, it is only the accomplished student who can learn to sleep with his eyes open. On TV the instructor has to fight to hold the audience by effective use of style, content, and visual aids.

⁶ Discussion of future research needs are found in H. Kumata, *An Inventory of Instructional Television Research*.

⁷ F. G. Macomber and Associates, *Experimental Study in Instruction Procedures: A Progress Report* (Miami, Ohio: Miami University, 1956). Macomber and his associates indicate that TV teaching demands three times as much time and energy of the teacher as that required in a discussion type of class of 30 students (p. 45).

A part of the audience that the professor is now working with is quite different from the one he faces in the classroom. Since the TV educational audiences are not all credit students, more careful attention must be given to the use of sociological terms. There is no way of knowing that "norm" is understood unless time is taken to define and describe it. One serious problem is that the professor does not know whether the students are getting the material; and, because time is limited, the material is likely to be more concentrated and less repetitious than classroom presentations. As a consequence, students may not be able to take notes as rapidly as the material is presented. Delivery is important here. Moreover, the student is in no position to ask the professor to repeat what he said if it is unclear or ambiguous. The professor speaks to the camera. It is his student, and one which does not ask questions. Moreover, the professor does not have the intimate relationship with students that he can develop in the classroom. In the traditional instructional course, students have the opportunity to ask questions and engage in discussions in or after class. No such possibility exists on TV.

TV makes no allowance for the fast or slow learner. The student who catches on quickly may soon become bored with the seeming slowness with which new materials are presented. The slow learner may feel a sense of isolation and even desperation. The professor cannot do much about this, since he is controlled in part by the technical demands of the medium and the need to be consistent in delivery. It has been suggested that it would be helpful if slow learners could tape record each lecture and then replay these broadcasts as needed.⁸

Television is the finest medium for the presentation of pictorial data and for demonstrating experiments, displaying material artifacts, sections of maps, charts, graphs, film clips, and other items. Blackboard work requires precision printing. Objects that are no larger than an inch can be blown up to fill a 24-inch screen. It is in this area that television presentation is most outstanding and far superior to classroom presentation of the same type of materials.

Professors who teach on TV probably do so for a variety of reasons. This is an area which ought to be studied as we move into the sociology of our own profession. Some professors are motivated by the desire to experience teaching on TV, to explore its possibilities, and in this sense

⁸ Professor Schermerhorn reports that one of his TV credit students in his Introductory Sociology course did not view a single lecture, since he was working at the time of presentation. His wife viewed and taped the lectures and played them back to him afterwards. He received a grade of C in the course. "But of course," Professor Schermerhorn comments, "there could have been other reasons for that (C) too."

they are innovators and movers in this area of social change. Others are more concerned with appealing to a wide audience and transmitting knowledge of their fields to large groups of people. Probably the television audience of the typical credit course would be the equivalent of a capacity house three times a week in the largest public hall in the city from which the program is emitting. There is some intrinsic gratification from the knowledge that you are talking to such a large audience, particularly when you are doing a good job.

Professional Relationships and Problems. Extra remuneration or time off from regular teaching responsibilities comes to the TV professor. Most universities realize that the professor should receive extra compensation for some of the additional time he spends on preparation and presentation.⁹

A good TV professor can use the medium (as in the past the Ph.D. has been used) as the prehensile tail for climbing the academic ladder. Administrators who are keenly interested in TV programming for educational and for public relations purposes (the latter function is very important, especially from the viewpoint of administration) are very quick to recognize the "star" performer and will make efforts to keep him at the institution with increases in rank and salary. Besides, other institutions may be interested in him, and in one sense he becomes "hot property." In all probability, the professor's success on TV will in the future be considered equally with scholarship, research, community service, and other tangible and intangible factors used in determining academic advancement. Also, it may be possible to become another Frank Baxter (University of Southern California).

TV allows the professor to be his college or university representative to a very large public. In this way he becomes a public relations representative. In Cleveland, Western Reserve University has 244 half-hour periods during a given year before an audience ranging from 15,000 to 30,000. Besides providing an enriching educational experience and continuing education for these viewers, it also is inexpensive publicity for the institution.¹⁰ Professors as part of the institutional complex of academia represent that institution in all their activities. It is difficult

⁹ At Western Reserve University teaching on TV is equivalent to six hours of the regular teaching load. If a professor elects to receive only three hours off his regular teaching responsibilities, he is paid for three hours overload. He also has the option of teaching his normal load and doing the TV course as "extra." For this he receives six hours of overload pay. See the American Council on Education, *Credit Courses by Television: Conference Report* (East Lansing, Michigan, 1955), p. 15, for a discussion of this problem.

¹⁰ *Credit Courses by Television*, p. 27. See remarks of Dean Leslie Brown.

to separate the citizen and professional roles. Appearing on television gives the professor an opportunity to serve his institution in another area. The results may be more students, funds for the institution, and community good will.

The TV professor is a pioneer and innovator experimenting with a new medium and in this sense is challenging the traditional methods of teaching. To some of his colleagues he may be viewed as a popularizer who is trying to simplify a difficult subject. Others feel that if he continues his ways in this push-button age, he will soon do away with his own teaching job. It is feared that tapes and filmed lectures will ultimately replace him. Therefore, he is a "professional rate buster," jeopardizing existing standards, and therefore has to be cut down to size. Cogent arguments on the other side maintain that the TV professor ultimately will have more time to meet and work with students and their problems. TV teaching can release the professor from repetitious presentations for important counseling, research, and scholastic activities. In any event, the professor contemplating teaching on TV should weigh its probable effect upon his colleague group.

Teaching on TV requires the coordinated efforts of a team of specialists. In the classroom the professor has complete control over his materials and his captive audience. On TV he has to work with camera men, engineers, producers, and supervisors. What he can or cannot do is determined by the technical limitations of the medium and perception of his team as to what is a good program, their interest and abilities. Thus, best teaching and success on TV is possible only when harmony and cooperation exist among all the specialists.¹¹ It may be necessary for the professor to utilize some of the findings of small group research in building a harmonious teaching team.

In conclusion, teaching via TV is no fad. It has proved itself and has reached its maturity. In the future it will loom large in the programming of all educational institutions. Sociologists should consider its implications for pedagogy, the problems it creates in professional relationships, and the opportunities it affords for creative teaching and expression.

¹¹ Lawrence E. McKune, "Teachers and Teaching" in a *Report on Educational Television*, prepared by The Subcommittee on Television of the Commission on Research and Service of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, p. 2.

TECHNIQUES AND INSTRUCTION IN TEACHING SOCIOLOGY ON TELEVISION

R. A. SCHERMERHORN
Western Reserve University

If sociology and the allied sciences are to flourish, they can do so only in a favorable climate of opinion, when increasing numbers of citizens feel the need for an accurate, tested body of knowledge on which to base life decisions. The new medium of television makes it possible for the sociologist to reach a greater audience than ever before, to familiarize them with the findings of social science research, to show them the relations between sociological data and their daily living, and finally dispel the mystery, the rumor-mongering, or the adulation that clings to his profession.

On the basis of the author's experience, it appears that the teacher is required to keep his attention constantly focused on three levels of the communication process: (1) capturing and holding interest, (2) television techniques, and (3) instructional adequacy. The rest of this discussion will be devoted to these three areas, based on the inestimable values of hindsight.

To begin with the first item, capturing and holding interest, it may seem axiomatic that the purpose of a course is to instruct rather than to entertain; before the camera, the television lecturer soon learns that this is not an absolute dichotomy. Personally speaking, the writer's own lecture came immediately after a home economics demonstrator, who had been preceded by a session of popular music; it soon became evident, therefore, that it might be more important to *keep* the attention of a mass audience, as well as *get* it. The professor in the classroom has a captive audience; on the air he has not. The televiewer can turn off the instructor at the switch of a knob. *O felix potential* Can we hypothesize that this very power may have beneficial consequences for sociology teaching in general?

But abandoning these perhaps unduly hopeful speculations, we may note a few specific measures for attracting and sustaining interest: (1) The use of an opening narrative, aphorism, or allusion to current news events related to the topic of the day. (2) Constant use of pictures, maps, graphs, board outlines and diagrams which help to give vividness and clarity to the presentation. Pictorial statistics are superior to statistical

tables. An arresting picture at the outset may establish an interest before words are spoken—the television lecturer soon learns, as the classroom lecturer too often has not, that words may be secondary to a total impression. (3) A continual use of films or film strips. Arnold Green has made a good beginning in this area, but far more needs to be done.¹ (4) Frequent use of guests on the program to give the advantages of expertness and fresh approaches in different aspects of the field. (5) Making use of camera men and technicians in the control room so that they ask questions or comment afterwards, a method by which the lecture will probably succeed in capturing the interest of the wider mass audience.

With regard to the second factor, television technique, the following clues have been found useful: (1) The picture should be kept from becoming static. The author's own experience has been that it is useful to have two desks, one with lectern and one without, and two blackboards. Movement from one desk to the other, and from desk to blackboard to easel where charts and pictures were shown, helps to break up the tendency to remain in a stationary position. (2) An experienced director in the control room can do much to manage frequent shifts of camera, close-ups, and movement of cameras back and forth, giving variety to the picture. At Western Reserve this is done by the University director of drama and television. (3) The blackboard cannot be used in the usual classroom style because close-ups that pick up the writing clearly enough for the viewer cover only half the blackboard. Hence everything must be reduced to half the blackboard size; this requires much condensation of outline or point headings. Diagrams and statistics have to be kept within the same framework. (4) The lecturer cannot allow his eyes to wander away from the camera too long; the director in the control room, if he is worth his salt, will keep urging the speaker to focus on the camera directly most of the time. (5) Change of pace is a necessity to avoid a monotonous presentation: constant variation in speed of articulation, in modulation of the voice, and in emphasis keeps the viewer from surfeit. (6) Time restrictions are more exacting than the ringing of classroom bells; leniency to wander

¹ Note also the *WOI-TV Directory of Non-Royalty Films for Television* obtainable from Richard B. Hull, Director of Radio and Television at Iowa State College. Another source of information valuable for television instruction is the Educational Television Newsletter, published by the Committee on Television of the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. A volume reviewing television education on all levels of instruction is authored by Jennie Waugh Callahan, *Television in School, College and Community* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1953).

on for just a few minutes more is no longer a special privilege of the pampered professor. Sanctions are now in other hands and overstepping the bounds of time leaves the teacher talking to thin air—even the studio staff are now moving to the next set. It is therefore imperative to observe the clock at intervals, estimating ahead how much to improvise, how much to delete, when to speed up or to slow down, so that the “wind-up” signal will bring the speaker to a natural conclusion. No matter how carefully time intervals are prepared beforehand, some flexibility is required in the time adjustment for practically every television performance.

Finally, and most important, is instructional adequacy. Let us consider this from the standpoint of *organization* and of *content*. As an organizational device the introductory sociology syllabus (available while they last) has fifty-three pages containing instructions for the course, an introduction by the instructor with study habits, an outline of lectures and assignments with dates, a short abstract of each lecture in paragraph form, some “warm-up” questions for use after assignment reading and before the lecture, a complete description of the six written assignments to be sent in by mail at intervals, a bibliography, and some sample examination questions. Reports by credit students who had taken regular classroom instruction at the University almost uniformly showed that the viewers put in more hours of actual work to complete their assignments than they had done for classroom courses.

A retrospective glance at the experience of teaching introductory sociology on television leads to the following reflections on content somewhat in the vein of hindsight recommendations. It goes without saying that the content of good teaching in TV lectures should be the same as it is in the classroom. But what are the features of this content which deserve special emphasis in a TV presentation? In the writer's opinion, the presence of a wider audience may justify special attention to the following items.

Some rationale for the use of an adequate technical terminology must be given at the same time so that the lectures do not dissipate into jargon. For example: “If two statuses have conflicting roles, thereby making them incompatible statuses when occupied simultaneously, it is assumed that these statuses would be less frequently occupied simultaneously than would two statuses with roles that do not conflict.”² This sentence will not only lose the television audience entirely, but will also open the

² Author to remain nameless. Quotation from *American Sociological Review*.

floodgates of criticism from our colleagues in the humanities who have had to learn to write felicitously while we have not. The castigations of Stringfellow Barr in *Purely Academic* are surely not without point; his account of sociological jargon in the English classroom is a ghastly example; our British confreres have much to teach us about clarity and straightforwardness of expression in social science. Television presents the sociologist with a first-rate opportunity to make his subject clear and compelling for a lay audience. Is it only gleeful sadism to imagine such an apprenticeship for all sociological writers of books?

Another topic of some concern is the impression left on the neophyte that there is general agreement among sociologists on the major conclusions and generalizations in the field. It is a mistake to give the audience the impression that all is harmonious in sociology. Surely the controversies of science are of absorbing interest, not only to the insider but to the layman. Is it too much to ask that at least a secondary place be found for a discussion of the positivistic as contrasted with the humanistic division within sociology? Or would it be entirely out of place, in the analysis of method which regularly appears, to indicate what has been discovered by the historical and cultural method, the clinical method, or the logic-experimental method? Perhaps this will give the layman a new appreciation of the alternatives in science, a more adequate perspective on the issues in scientific controversy, and certainly a more sophisticated notion of what social science is about—which is likely to mean a more sustained interest in the subject for the future.

Another central aim of the introductory course—and the more widely disseminated this is by television, the more salutary will be its effects—is to heighten the awareness of people regarding the sources of bias in themselves, as observers of the social scene. The effects of group loyalties on ideologies—class, ethnic, or associational—can be pointed up clearly enough in every case so that the relativity of judgment in terms of social position will be thoroughly absorbed by learners as a permanent part of their intellectual legacy. This can also be emphasized as a function of historical trends as the interests of the thirties in social problems and social change are contrasted with the security-mindedness and “adjustment” philosophy of Organization Man in the fifties. As Page has so aptly phrased it, “Students today—though no less than many of their teachers—are interested in organization rather than disorganization, adaptation rather than change, and especially those skills that seem to

spell conventional success in work, family and leisure pursuits."³ By focusing attention on these trends, the introductory course in sociology may at least stimulate the effort at self-correction and make the student aware of certain issues in the sociology of knowledge, even though not labeled as such at this stage.

Finally, a word about method as related to research. Continuous sampling of audience reactions by the techniques of communications research will make it possible to keep a constant check on the results of telecasting, and to judge the effectiveness of the instructor's presentation. As yet this research has been on too small a scale to provide reliable data. The author sampled over 50 per cent of his noncredit students and 80 per cent of his credit students with telephone interviews to obtain some preliminary information and found that over 90 per cent of both groups were married women with the noncredit students older (median 25 years out of school). Noncredit students, who were probably more similar to the mass audience, desired more visual aids, while the credit students as a whole did not. On the other hand, credit students sometimes complained that blackboard shots were too brief for note-taking, while others had no comment. Also the credit students evinced a strong desire to meet with the instructor and other students occasionally throughout the term.⁴

On the basis of this limited experience, it would seem that evaluation a month or two after the telecast program is distinctly a second-best method. A more ideal procedure would be to incorporate research into the structure of the telecourse itself and to sample reactions immediately, before the distorting effects of memory set in. Determination of class and status positions, group membership, etc., of the viewers in the samples would afford a much more precise knowledge of differential effects inherent in certain types of program. And, finally, to insure continuity, the same instructor should teach the course and direct the research for a number of years so that accumulated knowledge could be built up on audience reactions related to absorption of subject matter, attitudinal changes, and how these are connected with the techniques employed on the air.

³ Charles H. Page, "Sociology as a Teaching Enterprise: Some Problems and Trends," unpublished paper read before the American Sociological Society, Washington, D.C., August 29, 1957.

⁴ A typewritten copy of this study can be obtained by request and minor typing costs from the office of Cleveland College of Western Reserve University. The title is "A Sampling of Student Reactions to the Western Reserve University Telecourse in Principles of Sociology—Spring Semester 1954." Note also the Miami University (Ohio) research in effects of closed television teaching, footnote 7, Sussman's paper above.

MEASURING GROUP OPINION BY EXPERT ESTIMATES

L. K. NORTHWOOD

School of Social Work, Columbia University

The orthodox trend in sampling theory, as indicated in principal tests on research methods and in the journals, seems to contain the discussion of sampling within a description of the relative merits of quota sampling vs. probability sampling.

In this paper, sampling is considered as a measurement technique. By sampling is meant a process of selection of cases—not necessarily providing a statistical measure of probable error. In other words, sampling procedure is not absolutely equated with probability sampling.

The purpose of this paper is to try to promote a more flexible view toward sampling procedures in sociological research, especially in relation to estimating group opinion. It will challenge at least one of the basic assumptions of both quota and probability samples.

Each of these modes of sampling strives to achieve a replica of the larger universe being sampled. The glory of the probability samplers, they say, is that they are able to apply statistical tests of reliability because their samples are selected in such a way as to be representative of the population about which generalizations are desired.¹ The quota samplers, unable to provide such a statistical jewelery for their method at the present time, claim that the results obtained by probability samples are not much different from those obtained through quota techniques. They have produced a series of experiments to show this.² Moreover, they assert that quota techniques are less costly, less time consuming,

¹ Morris R. Hansen and Philip M. Hauser, "Area Sampling—Some Principles in Sampling Design," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 9: 183-93. For a discussion of the two sampling methods, see Chap. 7 in Mildred B. Parten, *Surveys, Polls and Samples* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), pp. 219-45; Eleanor E. Maccoby and Robert R. Holt, "How Surveys Are Made," *Journal of Social Issues*, 2: 44-56.

² Among the most recent articles are: Joseph R. Hochstim and Dilman M. K. Smith, "Area Sampling or Quota Control—Three Sampling Experiments," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 12: 73-80; Norman C. Meier and Charles Haner, "Is the Probability (Area) Sampling Method Superior to the Quota Method?" *American Psychologist*, 4: 254; Charles Haner and Norman C. Meier, "The Adaptability of Area Probability Sampling to Public Opinion Measurement," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 15: 335-52; H. Durant, "Experiences in Random Probability Sampling," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 15: 765-66.

and for these reasons more frequently used than probability samples. The quota samplers go to much pains to demonstrate that their samples are as representative of the universe as the probability sample.

In this paper is proposed another method of selecting respondents in which it doesn't matter whether the respondents are representative of the universe or not. The proposed method is called the *quota of experts* method of sampling (QE method).

Under the quota of experts method, the respondent is asked *not* to give his own opinion, but an estimate of what he thinks is the group opinion on the issue at hand. Thus, the sample of respondents need not be representative of the population whose attitudes are being measured. It is necessary only that the sample contain a quota of expert judges who are able to make accurate estimates about group opinion.

There is nothing really new about this idea. Experts have been hired to advise administrators for a much longer period than we have had refined sampling techniques. However, since experts are wrong on occasions, the assumption of many is that expert judgments are inferior to the results of polling a well-selected sample. Little research has been expended toward defining areas in which expert judgments may be as good as, or superior to, the findings taken from representative samples. It is only recently that scientists have become interested in the ability of judges to estimate group opinion. To my knowledge, this literature has not been applied in the present context, and that is the function of this paper.³

How feasible is the QE method? Is it possible to select expert judges of group opinion? Here is a brief summary of some of the research:

Newcomb demonstrated that "spontaneously chosen leaders will be better judges of the degree to which norms are shared than will most other group members" in a secluded college community of 250.⁴ Chowdhry extended this generalization to sociometrically chosen leaders in a series of small homogeneous groups, numbering 30-40 persons each.⁵ The

³ Two exceptions which deal with similar areas are: Herbert Stember, "Which Respondents Are Reliable?" *International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research*, 5: 473-79; Arnold M. Rose, "Communication and Participation in a Small City as Viewed by Its Leaders," *International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research*, 5: 367-90.

⁴ Theodore Newcomb, *Social Psychology* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1950), p. 658. See the same author's *Personality and Social Change* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1943).

⁵ Kamla Chowdhry and Theodore Newcomb, "The Relative Abilities of Leaders and Nonleaders to Estimate Opinions," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 47: 51-57. See also K. Chowdhry, "Leaders and Their Ability to Evaluate Group Opinion," Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1949.

present author duplicated the findings for top leaders and officeholders in a heterogeneous, highly stratified housing project of 12,000.⁶

In these three studies it should be noted that persons in top leadership positions are superior judges only in estimating well-crystallized group opinions that are relevant, i.e., important and familiar, to the group which they are judging; they are not expert on all kinds of items about the group.

There are contradictory findings as well. Hites and Campbell and others did not note differences between top officeholders and nonleaders as cited above. However, these contradictory conclusions may be resolved by reclassifying the items in terms of their norm productive potential. The author attempted such a reclassification and found that in most cases the contradictions were alleviated. The evidence now available supports the view that top officeholders are superior judges of group relevant norms.

What implications do these findings have for the QE method? They would seem to place at least the following restrictions on the sampling procedure: (1) the quota of experts may be drawn from persons in top officeholding positions and (2) these top officeholders can be expected to give accurate estimates only of crystallized relevant group norms.

A third restriction, pertaining to the nature of the group, is suggested by the contradictory findings. Perhaps there are populations for which the estimates of top officeholders will not excel other judges. Namely, if the sample is a statistical aggregate with little or no group cohesion, consequently no leader offices or crystallized group norms (other than the societal norms), then it would seem that the selection of judges could not be made on the basis detailed above. On the other hand, there may be groups with such a high degree of homogeneity that all judges, regardless of leader status, will be equally expert in judgments about relevant group norms, or as a matter of fact, about any items to do with the group.

In the current research cited above it was noted that not all top officeholders are expert judges of group opinion. Some are very poor judges. On the other hand, some are experts at judging all kinds of group norms and statistical scores about the group—not just relevant group norms. Moreover, some nonleaders were as expert as any leaders in judging all kinds of items. The conclusion is drawn that expertness in assessing group opinion is not necessarily a leadership trait, as has often been suggested.

⁶ Lawrence K. Northwood, *Leaders and Nonleaders as Expert Judges of Community Opinions*, Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1953.

Rather, expertness is the property of all roles or social categories which have easy access to communications within the group. One category of roles with superior access to communication is the top offices which administer and control social organization, hence the expertness frequently found in persons holding top offices.

The author tested this hypothesis for several social categories known to have superior access to community information in Willow Village. Home-centered wives were more accurate judges of community information than their work-centered husbands, whereas there were no differences between male leaders and female leaders, both having equivalent access to community information. White judges excelled Negro judges, who were socially and physically segregated into one section of the community. Student judges, who were a favored class in the community, encouraged to participate in community affairs, were superior to working class judges, both Negro and white, who were somewhat isolated from community life for a number of reasons, including administration policy.

These findings suggest that a quota of experts might be drawn from any roles with superior access to communications within the group. There are, however, additional reasons that recommend the use of top officeholders: (1) they can be easily identified in the social structure of the group; (2) they are usually influential in the group, thereby furnishing an effective channel for feeding back the findings of the survey.

So far, we have been concerned with designating the classes of judges in a group which have the greatest likelihood of containing large proportions of expert judges. The expert can further be pinpointed by other pertinent research. Hovland and Sherif point out that:⁷ "Individuals with strong personal involvement will tend to see issues pretty much in 'all black or white' rather than with fine distinctions, and that statements even mildly critical of their position will be judged to be more hostile to them than by more neutral persons."

This statement was made in reference to judgments on ambiguous items on Thurstone scales. A similar phenomenon was found by the author in the study cited above. Leaders in Willow Village were rated on the extent of their participation in formal organizations and informal cliques, on their attitudes toward participation, and the attitudes of others as to "how actively" the leaders participated in community organization. The most expert judges seemed to be those who had *not* been in

⁷ Carl Hovland and Muzafer Sherif, "Judgmental Phenomena and Scales of Attitude Measurement: Item Displacement in Thurstone Scales," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 47: 824-25.

their present offices for a great length of time, who were *not* active partisans of inner-clique struggles, who were *not* wrapped up heart and soul in organizational activity. In other words, the most expert judges were not so *intensely* involved in organizations as top officeholders, but more so than nonleaders. They were somewhat removed from policy making, while still being more active, slightly dissatisfied participants than the rank-and-file member of Willow Village organizations.

Similar findings have been pointed to by other authors. For example, Hinckley and Rethlingschafer showed that judgments of the average height of a subject is influenced by the height of the man making the judgment.⁸ Others have demonstrated that judgments of group opinions are influenced by the judge's own opinions.⁹ However, Hinckley and Rethlingschafer indicate that the egocentric influence is partially controlled by objective facts. In the case of judgments of group opinion, knowledge of group norms and of facts about the group, it is suggested, will lead to more accurate judgments.

The application of these research findings to selecting a quota of experts is this: don't select the quota from among judges who are most deeply involved in the outcome of the issue; they are liable to project their desires into their estimates. This sounds like a principle of law: judges who are prejudiced on an issue should disqualify themselves from sitting in judgment.

In some cases the selection of the quota of experts will be complex. Perhaps this suggests another of the limits of the QE method; it may be adaptable only where the sample is of a known social structure. In regard to this point, it should be noted that both quota and probability samplers are advising extensive presurvey analysis so as to assure the proper proportions of groupings and strata within the sample. Thus all the QE method is doing is to extend this practice.

Furthermore, survey teams have found that an extensive social structural analysis is necessary in order to facilitate the feedback of survey findings to the client. Again, what the QE method is doing is to have this structural analysis largely completed *before* the survey is started, rather than *after* it is completed. The proposals made in this paper may

⁸ E. D. Hinckley and D. Rethlingschafer, "Value Judgments of Heights of Men by College Students," *Journal of Psychology*, 31: 257-62.

⁹ Travers, *ibid.*, pp. 23-28. See also Richard Wallen, "Individual's Estimates of Group Opinion," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 17: 269-74. One of the best discussions of the Oklahoma work in this area is summarized by Muzafer Sherif, "Integrating Field Work and Laboratory," *American Sociological Review*, 19: 759-70.

be considered as consonant with other researchers, suggesting that there is a convergence now taking place in the quota and probability techniques.

To conclude, in the brief time allotted this paper, I urge that alternative modes of sampling to the familiar quota and probability techniques be considered. This challenge has taken the form of suggesting an alternative, the quota of experts technique. The paper has avoided duplicating major criticisms that have been made of the usual techniques elsewhere. It has stressed by example the utilization of current theoretical findings in the field of social psychology in perfecting another mode of sampling.

Two general conclusions from a range of social-psychological experimentation are seen as pertinent to the selection of expert judges: (1) Expertness in judging group opinion largely is a property of those roles with easy access to communications within the organization, especially the roles of top officeholders. This expertness is conditional upon the type of item and the type of group. (2) Most judges slant their group estimates in the direction of their own judgments. However, those judges who lack strong personal involvement in the outcome of the issue, or in organizational commitments, tend to make more accurate estimates. These estimates may be bettered by knowledge of objective facts.

This paper should be interpreted as an attack on the statistical basis of sampling only to the extent that statistical criteria are made the prime determiners of sampling procedures. Space limitations have restricted the presentation of pertinent social-psychological theory in its application to the QE method.

THE ROLE OF ECONOMIC MOTIVATION IN ETHNIC RELATIONS*

RALPH R. IRELAND

University of Arizona

The purpose of this study is to examine French-English social relations in Quebec in order to see how the social and cultural heritage, the status, and the economic role of the French-Canadians have been modified through contact with the dominant English-Canadian culture. The theoretical approach is based upon the conceptual frame of reference set forth by Talcott Parsons in his discussion of "The Motivation of Economic Activities."¹

The social heritage and structure of any given society determine to a large extent the content of the motivations and the resulting activities of its members. In turn, these are organized into an institutional pattern. Changes in the social structure will produce concomitant changes in individual interests and behavior, though the process may be impeded if the new patterns are incompatible with the old. Other factors besides the objective and the material culture may be involved in social change. However, the emphasis in this paper is on the importance of institutional patterns in the formulation of interests, values, and beliefs rather than to imply that all human behavior is necessarily economically determined. This is particularly apparent when a comparison is made of two contrasting cultures existing side by side, such as is the case with the French and English in Quebec.

*Some of this research was undertaken at the University of Toronto, where the author collaborated with Mr. D. McKay and Miss B. Plewman. The late President Charles S. Johnson of Fisk University encouraged and assisted in the presentation of the study, which was originally reported in part at a meeting of the Institute of Race Relations at Fisk University.

¹ Talcott Parsons, *Essays in Sociological Theory, Pure and Applied* (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1949), pp. 200-17. Parsons maintains that all human activity, including economic activity, takes place within the institutional framework of society. The societal institutions serve to organize and integrate the subjective aspects of human social action, i.e., the underlying motivational forces. These motivational forces are comprised of disinterested moral sentiments (status, rights, roles) and self-interest. Self-interest expresses itself in economic motivation by a desire for recognition and a desire for self-respect. Insecurity in the economic world may be manifested by such traits as overaggressiveness, acquisitiveness, or an unwillingness to participate in entrepreneurial activities.

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL HERITAGE

Prior to the rapid industrialization of Quebec about half a century ago, the bulk of the people lived on the land under the Seigneurial system, a semifeudal social structure dominated by the Catholic Church. Although this system was formally abolished in 1854, vestiges are still apparent. The self-sufficiency and isolation which had characterized the seigneurie persisted under the Parish system. Many factors combined to maintain the status quo and to hinder agricultural progress. The original shape of the seigneuries and the mode of inheritance resulted in the formation of long, narrow holdings, no longer divisible nor subject to efficient cultivation. Little information on advanced techniques penetrated into the isolated parish from the outside world, nor was it particularly welcome. Traditional methods were thought to be the best.

The average rural French-Canadian family is a closely knit unit which follows a traditional pattern both in the education of the children and in matters of inheritance. This pattern is reinforced by the family's close parochial ties. Although the familial ties are loosened in the industrialized urban areas, the traditional conception of the family still exerts its influence. Most French-Canadians spend their informal social lives within their family circles and cliques. When French-Canadians make non-French contacts or join mixed associations, their activities are usually either formal or superficial.

The dominating influence in the social and cultural life of French Canada has always been the Roman Catholic Church. Historically, the relation between the church and the upper classes in Quebec has been diplomatic. The two groups have developed a division of labor and an integration of leadership rather than a competitive relationship.

In marked contrast to the English-Canadian group with its tradition of separation of church and state and its emphasis on the Protestant Ethic, the influence of the Catholic Church permeates French-Canadian life—in the family, education, social activities, and, to some extent, in government. The clergy and public officials appear together at official functions. The tendency of the French-Canadian to regard Quebec as a "Catholic state" rather than a secular one was symbolized in recent years by placing a crucifix over the Speaker's chair in both Houses of the Quebec legislature.

The majority of the educational institutions in the province are run by the Catholic Church. Until very recently these institutions offered

little in the way of technical or commercial training. Traditionally, advanced education has prepared candidates for the priesthood or one of the learned professions. Elementary education has been conducted along lines calculated to instill traditional modes of thought and behavior appropriate to life in a close-knit rural economy. The urbanized or uprooted habitant has not been trained for success in the industrial world.

STATUS OF THE FRENCH-CANADIAN

In French Canada, in the course of three centuries, there has grown up a deep-rooted set of mores regulating the relations of its status groups with each other. Any attack or encroachment upon these mores could be construed by the French as an attack upon their status, upon their social structure. It would, in Parsons' terms, arouse in them "disinterested" feelings of moral indignation, and at the same time might prevent them from achieving satisfaction of their "self-interested" motives in the traditional manner.

French-speaking Canadians are very sensitive about their status. A clear indication of this was brought out by a question on a public opinion poll conducted during World War II which invited the French-Canadians to indicate what they disliked most about English-speaking Canadians. The favorite response was: "Their arrogant, domineering attitude." The English-speaking group, when asked the same question about the French-Canadians, replied: "Their bigotry, prejudice, and provincialism." The French reply betrays a militancy regarding their own status in contrast to the self-assuredness implied in the English response. Parsons explains this by saying that where a conflict of motivation exists, i.e., where a group such as the French-Canadians with its own traditional modes of behavior is expected to act in accordance with an alien and incompatible institutional pattern, its "insecurity" may be manifested in increased aggressiveness.

The concrete expression of these mixed feelings of the French may be interpreted in the light of their heritage. In the past, and to some extent today, the French-Canadian has been subjected to the soil under a feudal system which has been approved by the State and Church alike. The system of land-holding proved to be both a waste of land and human incentive. As the population increased and the family farms could not be further subdivided, emigration to the other provinces, and especially to the United States, provided an outlet for the more enterprising.

Neither his traditional economic system nor his church has prepared the French-Canadian for a prominent role in an industrialized society.

Some observers have stressed the importance of position and status as they affect the French-Canadians in modern industrial towns. The traditional objectives of their culture—small businesses, real estate, and the practice of law or medicine—no longer afford the security or status they gave in a rural society. This has caused the French-Canadian to have his traditional ambitions frustrated in the industrialized communities of his own territory. Only those who feel they have no status to lose dare move out into the secular, industrial, non-French world. In Parsons' terms, the *content* of motives must be in keeping with the social structure if they are to be satisfied. Interpolation of an alien element in the structure will threaten the traditional mode of achieving satisfaction and may even require a change in the direction in which satisfaction is sought.

Frustration in the social, economic, and political spheres seems to play a major role in shaping French-Canadian attitudes. Its power for projection into other spheres, in either a sublimative or compensative form, has been for the most part overlooked. Hughes² noted that formerly the professional and merchant classes wielded the greatest influence and had the highest status in a town. Now, the managerial and technical classes possess the power to decide a town's fate. There are few points of actual competition between these classes, represented by the French and English respectively. However, the obviously more advantageous position of the English has made the French all too conscious of the threat to their status in the social structure. Nor is this situation peculiar to the small town, formerly semirural and now highly industrialized. It is evident even in such a metropolis as Montreal.

Today, in the national sphere, many French-Canadians are still convinced that Canada is a dependent nation and subject to the whims of Westminster regardless of the wishes of the people. This point is hotly denied by English-speaking Canadians who assert that Canada is absolutely independent and free to take any course of action it chooses on any matter without having to obtain Britain's sanction. Canada's participation in the last two world wars has obviously not helped the French-speaking population to alter its views. They still believe that Canada would not have become involved in either of these wars had it not been for Britain.

² E. C. Hughes, *French Canada in Transition* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1943), pp. 46-83. Hughes suggests that the insecurity of the French-Canadians with respect to their status creates a milieu conducive to listening to attacks on the English and the newly introduced economic system. Thus, an agitator often had no difficulty in persuading his French listeners that they were being *exploited* by an industrial system *imposed* on them by the English.

The French-Canadian's firm belief that Britain ultimately has authority to meddle in Canadian internal and external affairs remains a bone of contention. To the French-Canadian it epitomizes his domination by a victorious race. He feels that he has to play the role of a conquered subject. If this is not true, he argues, then why is it necessary to conscript men except for the defense of Canada? The roots of this problem lie deep in the early history of the country.

In the domestic field also, the French-Canadian feels that he is dominated by his English-speaking compatriots. It is true that he has a proportionate representation in the federal government, but he believes that this representation is more apparent than real. Whenever a motion is introduced by a French-Canadian member of parliament, it can be defeated by the English-speaking majority if it does not meet with their approval. Many French-Canadians feel that their representation in the federal government is ineffective, that, in the final analysis, they have practically nothing to say in controlling or governing the country. That is, French-Canadians believe that the laws they have to obey are enacted without regard for their wishes or interests, as though they were a negligible, instead of the second largest, ethnic group in the population.

THE ECONOMIC ROLE OF THE FRENCH-CANADIAN

The whole structure of the French-Canadian economy in the past has been centered around the home, the farm, and the small business enterprise. Until very recently Quebec escaped most of the direct effects of the Industrial Revolution. What benefits it received came indirectly. However, with the culmination of the Industrial Revolution in the present century in the form of monopolies, interlocking directorates, stupendous profits, etc., even the most isolated regions began to feel its impact. The coming of large industrial firms to Quebec may be considered from many angles. Here were to be found abundant natural resources and a vast reservoir of cheap labor—resources which were readily available and labor that was docile and unsophisticated.

With the advent of the Industrial Revolution in the province, new enterprises were encouraged by both State and Church because of the increase in revenue they would bring and because they would provide an outlet for the overflow of population which the agricultural economy could not absorb. The late development of industry in Quebec favored principally those establishments with relatively large capitalization, and whose well-developed mass-production methods and corporate forms of

organization enabled them to compete successfully in the world market. On the whole, it was not a propitious setting for the entrepreneur with a small amount of capital.

It was not until 1901 that the first opposition was raised to the encouragement of "foreign" capital into Quebec. Errol Bouchette urged his people not to neglect industry in their concern for their agricultural and pioneering tradition. However, it was not until the late 1920's that the economic point of view was generally adopted by the elite of French-Canada. This economic development has had profound social consequences. During this period the traditional respect of the habitant for the highly educated and highly placed was gradually supplanted by the class consciousness of the newly urbanized and industrialized masses. This urban proletariat today constitutes more than two thirds of the population of Quebec.

In other ways the social structure of Quebec is feeling the impact of this modern industrial movement. The attraction of the landless sons of farmers to the large towns and cities in search of employment has to some extent weakened the influence of the family unit. The usually static population has become more mobile. The Roman Catholic Church has viewed this situation with increasing concern. So long as the family unit remained static and kept its strong parochial ties, the Church played a prominent role in its life. The urbanized worker often weakened his connections with the Church. He found it possible in this new situation to remain a "good Catholic" without being completely under the thumb of the priest. Statistics show that there has also been a marked decline in the number of children born into the families of nonrural French-Canadian workers. Always in favor of large families and bitterly opposed to birth control, the clergy has communicated its disapproval of this decline in the urban birth rate to the faithful in no uncertain terms.

Another cause for concern on the part of the Church is the influence of trade unionism on the newly urbanized French-speaking workers. The Church is outspoken in its hostility to communism, and it views socialism with much suspicion. The clergy constantly warns the people of the reputed evils inherent in left-wing politics. To counteract this seeming danger, the Church has sponsored such purely Catholic labor organizations as the Syndicates and the Young Catholic Workers. This has caused a certain degree of friction between the Church and the upper-class French-Canadians, who dislike all trade unionism, whether Church-sponsored or not. Nevertheless, the spread of unionism has paralleled the expansion of industry in Quebec. Today, the French-Canadian

workers are much less willing to accept lower wages and poorer working conditions than those available to English-Canadians or American workers.

Industry in Quebec increased with technological advancement, especially the development of hydroelectric power; and with this progress skilled technicians and executives were required to operate the concerns. As the French-Canadian educational system had almost completely neglected technological and scientific training, it was necessary to obtain these technicians and executives from the more industrially advanced parts of Canada or from other countries. Generally, such personnel were recruited from the English-speaking group. Today, however, the trend is toward increasing technical education. Engineering courses are well filled at the University of Montreal and L'Ecole Polytechnique. French-Canadians are also to be found in the engineering courses at McGill University. It would thus appear that many of the French group are beginning to seek status through advancement in industry.

A survey of the occupational studies which have been made shows an increasing predominance of English-speaking Canadians as the jobs progress from unskilled labor to top management, the French-Canadians being concentrated at the lower end of the scale. Most of the French who hold high managerial posts are found in the smaller industries. The field of big business is almost entirely dominated by the English.

When considering French-Canadians for positions of foremen and supervisors, the English employers and executives have a real fear that once the French are put into authority they may yield to claims made on them by their families. They claim that every family acts as a lobby for its members. Such a situation is most conducive to feelings of jealousy and discontentment, with the result that these foremen may not be able to maintain discipline and morale. On the other hand, there is ample evidence to show that many French-Canadian businessmen manage to operate successfully despite these alleged familial claims. This may indicate that jealousy appears mainly at the moment of promotion and dies out as soon as the position has been established.

The development of the modern industrial economy, including the American type of urban life and institutions, constitutes a serious threat to the old French semirural economy. Unless this old economy is modernized, it will perish in our present economic structure. This situation is distasteful to most French-speaking Canadians. They realize that most industry is under the control of the English. Seldom do the English work under French authority. Although both French and English are official

languages in Canada, the business world conducts its affairs primarily in English. This is a constant irritant to the average French-Canadian, a mark of his minority role. The French-speaking Canadians are now in the process of trying to adjust to these latest and most revolutionary changes introduced in their midst by their English-speaking compatriots.

SUMMARY

The relations between the French-Canadians and English-speaking Canadians frequently take the form of clashes not only on the objective level, that is, between the traditional institutional patterns and an alien and incompatible economic superstructure, but also on the subjective motivational level. The accepted modes of achieving recognition and the symbols of status, or, as Parsons terms them, the specific motives, were formerly widely divergent between the two groups. Today, however, the sustained impact of the modern industrial system is having its effect on the attitudes of the French-Canadian whose life is controlled by it. It is becoming increasingly impossible for him to achieve satisfaction of his "self-interested" motives in the old ways; and, unless he turns his back on the cultural patterns instilled in him in childhood, he finds it difficult to succeed in the new industrial world. Inevitably, in the individual, as in society, there is a conflict of motives between deeply ingrained "disinterested" elements and "self-interest" as defined by economic necessity.

RACIAL DISTANCE CHANGES IN THE UNITED STATES DURING THE PAST THIRTY YEARS

EMORY S. BOGARDUS
University of Southern California

In order to study changes in racial distance reactions a time element is necessary. This factor is represented in this report, which is based on three related pieces of research, the first being made in 1926, the second in 1946, and the third in 1956.

In all three of these studies the same Racial Distance Scale was used.¹ In the 1926 research the reactions of 1,725 persons from 32 different locations in the United States were obtained to a list of 36 different racial groups. While "ethnic groups" would be a more accurate term, since it signifies cultural factors, the respondents for the most part were accustomed to thinking in terms of "races," and hence the latter term was used. The 1,725 respondents were divided almost equally between men and women. Their ages fell between 18 and 35, with a few persons being over 35. Almost one half were enrolled in college courses, while nearly all of the other half were college graduates who were professionally employed but taking one or more postgraduate courses at the time. Approximately one half were enrolled in one or more courses in sociology; and the others, in courses in a wide range of fields. The reactions were obtained from 32 well-distributed areas over the United States, through the aid of faculty members in colleges and universities in these different regions. The respondents from each one of the 32 institutions of higher learning came from many different parts of the United States. Hence the lines of residence of each respondent from his college or university to his home crisscrossed with the lines of residence of respondents from most of the other 31 institutions. Hence there was a rather comprehensive distribution of the 1,725 subjects who participated in this research project. Negroes constituted 10 per cent of the total participants, a percentage similar to the percentage that they constituted of the total population of the United States. In utilizing the data of the

¹ The initial paper by the writer concerning this scale was entitled "Measuring Social Distances" and appeared in the March-April 1925 issue of the *Journal of Applied Sociology*, IX: 299-308. The procedure involved in making the scale was described by the writer in "A Social Distance Scale," *Sociology and Social Research*, XVII: 265-71, January 1933.

1926 study, the writer has drawn upon his report that was published in 1928.² This study did not purport in any sense to represent a sampling of the population of the United States, but it was rather a selection of subjects between the ages of 18 and 35 for the most part, representing given educational levels, living in a large number of different areas in this country.

In 1946, twenty years later, the writer made a similar study, obtaining racial distance reactions from 1,950 persons selected in the same way as were the respondents in 1926. These reactions were secured in the same way as in the earlier study. They were obtained from an equal number of men and women, from the same or similar areas in the United States, from persons of the same educational levels and interests, and so on. The respondents belonged to a later generation and were not of course the first group, who had in the meantime grown twenty years older and who would not have been a comparable group in case they could all have been located. The list of "races" had two additions, namely, second generation Mexicans and second generation Japanese. The same Racial Distance Scale was used as in 1926, although in the meantime it had been refined to state the human relationships by which distance reactions were being measured, by socially equidistant intervals as determined by the arithmetic mean of the ratings of 100 judges, and as described in some detail elsewhere by the writer.³

In 1956 the writer made a racial reactions study similar to the two preceding ones, specifically for comparative purposes. The same scale was used and the list of "races" included 30 of the 1946 study and 28 of the 1926 project. The respondents belonged to the same educational levels, approximately the same areas of the United States, and were almost equally divided between the sexes. The same method of obtaining the racial reactions was used. This time racial reactions to each of the 30 racial groups were secured from 2,053 respondents, 1,005 of whom were men and 1,048 were women. The comparisons in all cases were made in terms of arithmetic means.⁴

² *Immigration and Race Attitudes* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1928).

³ "A Social Distance Scale," *Sociology and Social Research*, XVII: 265-71.

⁴ In making this study the writer is indebted to a large number of persons, especially the following: Alan Bates, Charles Bowerman, Therel Black, Morris Caldwell, Ames Chapman, Frederick Conrad, Joseph Gaiser, Robert Gray, Harry Harmsworth, Harold Hodges, Jr., Thomas Hoult, Harold Jacoby, Donald Kent, Joseph Lagey, Thomas Lasswell, Rose Hum Lee, Samuel Leger, Edward McDonagh, Louise McDonagh, Frances Merrill, Milton Mittelman, Jerome Myers, Philip Noguee, John Owen, Louis Petroff, Floyd Pollock, Eugene Richards, Arnold Rose, Georges Sabagh, James Schellenberg, Hugh Smythe, Woodrow Scott, Vernon Snowbarger, Preston Valien, and I. Roger Yoshino.

Thus, the three studies were conducted in ways designed to be comparative at intervals of ten years (1946-1956), of twenty years (1926-1946), and of thirty years (1926-1956). In presenting comparisons for the years 1926 and 1946, the writer has drawn upon an already published report.⁵

Some of the points at which comparisons of the findings can be made will now be noted. The data on which these observations rest are presented herewith in tabular form.

1. The races in the upper or nearness third of the total group of races toward which reactions are expressed are about the same for the three different dates, 1926, 1946, and 1956. They represent in the main the north European races and those lighter in color.

2. While the distance scores for the races in the nearness third are about the same for the years 1956 and 1946, they are a little higher for the same races in the 1956 study. In order to obtain an explanation of this increase in distance reactions, the interview materials were examined, with the result that at least one point came to the surface, namely, that in recent years the darker colored races seem to be developing an increasing degree of race awareness and are reacting more than earlier against the "superior" attitudes of some of the white races. Further study is needed in order to test this explanation.

3. In comparing the rank order of the 30 racial groups toward whom reactions were expressed by the 2,053 respondents, it may be observed that the Germans went down in rank order (greater distance) in 1946, reflecting, according to interviews, attitudes developed during World War II. The Germans were not accorded any decrease in distance score by 1956, although their rank order was less.

4. The Spanish fell in both the rank order and the distance accorded them in 1946. Interview data suggest that this increase was related to the association, in the minds of some respondents, of Franco with Mussolini and Hitler at that time, as being a dictator.

5. In 1946 the Russians had maintained their rank order and their distance score of 1926, but by 1956 they had fallen decidedly. Interviews pointed definitely to the shift of the Russians from being allies in 1946 and earlier to the leading protagonists in the cold war that developed after 1946, as a major explanatory factor in the marked increase in distance score given them. Some respondents indicated that they would distinguish between Russians as people and Russians as communists, and

⁵ "Changes in Racial Distances," *International Journal of Opinion Research*, 1:55-62.

that in the first instance they would give them a greater nearness score than they would in the latter case, but that the friendly feeling toward the Russians as people was overcome by the type of government to which they were subject.

6. The Italians fell in rank order and in distance score in 1946. Interviews were uniform in accounting for this increase in distance reactions on the basis of their preceding fascist government under Mussolini. However, the antagonistic feeling reactions did not remain strong, for the 1956 data show that they received a marked decrease in distance and that their rank order was also less.

7. The Czechs had risen in rank order and had been given a decrease in distance score by 1946 (they had fought against the Germans). By 1956 they had fallen in rank order and were given a greater distance score, because of "the communist regime to which they are subject."

8. The Jews received the same rank order and about the same social distance score in 1946 as they did twenty years earlier. However, the interview data showed two different sets of distance reactions by the respondents in 1946. In one type of interview materials deep sympathy was expressed for the Jews because in Europe they had been brutally persecuted by the Nazis. In the other type of reactions, evidences of fear were expressed lest the immigration bars be lowered and Jewish immigrants by the thousands be admitted to the United States. These objectors expressed fear because of what they called the "aggressiveness" of some Jews and of "their tendency to dominate any organization." It appeared that the friendly reactions and the unfriendly ones just about offset each other, for the total distance score toward Jews remained about the same.

In 1956 the Jews received a definitely higher rank order and an increased nearness score. According to the interviews, less marked distinctions between Jews and non-Jews were being drawn in 1956 than earlier, and to some respondents it seemed as though "Jews are undergoing assimilation into American life" and that "they are less conspicuous in actions than they used to be."

9. The Mexicans fell in rank order and received an increased distance score in 1946. By 1956 they slipped down again in rank order, but were given a decreased distance score, which may mean that other racial groups received an even greater decrease in distance. The publicity given in the press in the western part of the United States to the large number of Mexicans who have allowed themselves in recent years to be enticed to

come across the Border illegally to work on farms chiefly, and who had been labeled "wetbacks," aroused adverse reactions. Some respondents think of Mexicans as "peons" and as "unclean laborers."

10. The second generation Mexican, that is, Americans of Mexican parentage received a higher rank order and an improved nearness score in 1956 than they did ten years earlier. The respondents were distinguishing between Mexicans and the second generation Mexican Americans, in favor of the latter.

11. The Japanese fell greatly in rank order and in distance score in 1946 (following the attack on Pearl Harbor and the war). It is noticeable that the reactions toward them changed in the nearness direction after their defeat and their shift toward democracy, as evidenced by their rank order and their distance score in 1956.

12. The second generation Japanese, that is, the Americans of Japanese parentage (Nisei), were for the first time included in the list of groups in the Racial Distance Scale, as was also the case with the second generation Mexican Americans in racial distance experiments in 1934. At that time trial studies showed that they were given practically the same distance score as were the first generation (Issei), despite the fact that they were American citizens by birth whereas their parents could not become citizens. By 1946 the second generation Japanese were given a higher rank order and a greater nearness score, showing that the respondents were distinguishing between the Issei and the Nisei in favor of the latter. This nearness differential was related to the remarkable record for bravery in battle shown by the Nisei soldiers in the American military forces, especially in Italy. By 1956 the Americans of Japanese parentage had been accorded a still better rank order and a lesser distance score.

13. Filipinos moved up in rank order and in nearness score between 1926 and 1946. Their loyalty as a whole to the cause of independence and to the United States during World War II is one explanatory factor, judging by the interviews. In the 1956 study the Filipinos moved up the rank order and received an increase in nearness reactions, which was explained in part at least by some of the respondents as a result of the Filipinos' continued resistance to communism and to the continued friendliness of the Philippines under President Magsaysay for the United States.

14. Between 1926 and 1946 Negroes slid down the rank order and distance score. Some respondents showed resentment toward the increasing militancy of some Negro leaders and toward the latter's insistence on their "rights." This resentment was shown even more by some of the

participants in the 1956 study particularly with reference to the desegregation movement, but this resentment was more than offset by the reactions of many respondents who were slowly becoming adjusted to the idea of at least gradual integration up to a certain point, and hence the total distance score given the Negroes in 1956 was significantly less than in 1946, especially for many parts of the United States outside the South, and for many persons in the 18 to 35 year age group.

15. Sympathetic interest on the part of Americans in the Chinese prior to 1946 in their long defense against Japanese military forces and propaganda would explain in part the upward jump given them in rank order and in nearness reactions in the 1946 study. Their association with the United States in World War II suggests an added explanation. While the rank order and the distance score given them in 1956 show a farness trend, due to the coming of the communist rule over China, yet there is evidence in the interview data that many persons are distinguishing between the Chinese as a people struggling toward democracy and the Chinese communist regime.

16. In looking at the racial group given the greatest distance score in each of the three years, 1926, 1946, and 1956, it will be noted that there is a decline in distance reactions represented by the figures 3.91, 3.61, and 2.83. The aggravations affecting attitudes during World War II would seem to explain why the decline in distance score was limited between 1926 and 1946. It is seen that the large decrease in distance score for 1956 occurs in the reactions toward the eight races given the highest scores. This decrease more than offsets a small increase in distance accorded the races in the nearness third of the total list. The decrease given the darker races is found in interviews to be related to a greatly increased acquaintance with, understanding of, and interest in these racial groups that has developed in the last decade of years on the part of at least a considerable number of the 2,053 respondents in 1956.

17. The arithmetic means of the reactions toward all the racial groups by 1,725, 1,950, and 2,053 persons on the respective dates show a decline in distance reactions as follows, 2.14, 2.12, and 2.09. While these decreases may seem to some persons to be too small to be mentioned, yet they take on significance when the total number of distance reactions that is represented by each arithmetic mean is considered, namely, 48,500, 58,500, and 61,590, respectively.

In tabulating the data given by the 134 Jewish members of the 2,053 respondents in 1956, it was found that they, like other races, place themselves at the head or near the head of the nearness pole of the distance

figures, but that they placed the other races in pretty much the same order as all the respondents placed them. The scores for the Russians and the Czechs were closer to the farness pole than those given by the entire group of respondents. However, the arithmetic mean of the scores given the thirty races by the Jewish respondents was 2.04, a figure representing more nearness on the whole than that shown by the total number of subjects. The sample of Jewish participants was not large enough to draw anything more than a preliminary notation.

19. In tabulating the Scales that were completed by the 218 Negro members of the panel, it was found that they naturally put themselves at the head of the nearness pole. Next in point of nearness came the English, Canadians, and Americans (U. S. white) but the distance reactions to these groups were greater than those expressed by the total number of 2,053 respondents. It is of interest to note that the Negro respondents placed Americans (U. S. white) near the top of the nearness end of the distance scale. Reasons advanced were (1) "we have white friends to whom we feel close because they treat us like humans," (2) "we'd rather belong to white America than to any other country," (3) "we aspire to achieve what white people have achieved here in the United States even if they do discriminate against us." Also in the nearness third of the Negro reactions are other races in the following order, French, American Indians, Spanish, Chinese, Mexican Americans, and Italians.

In the middle third of the thirty races, the Negroes placed in order the Filipinos, Japanese Americans, Indians from India, and Mexicans, but at a less distance score than was given these groups by the total number of respondents. In the third section the greatest distance scores were given by the Negroes to the Czechs, Poles, Japanese, Koreans, Turks, with the Russians being assigned the greatest distance. The arithmetic mean of the distance reactions given all thirty races by the Negroes is 2.32, which is higher than that given the thirty races by all 2,053 respondents. Interviews indicate that the higher distance score is related to the discrimination which many Negroes received at the hands of lighter colored people. It may be added that the data concerning Negro racial reactions come from four different areas, that is, from two areas in the South, from one area in the Border region, and from one area in the North. However, the N is not large enough to claim for it any final conclusions.

The foregoing data suggest a number of hypotheses. 1. Racial distances decrease very gradually, if at all, when embedded in deep-seated sentiments and traditions.

2. In the case of a given race social distances may increase suddenly and extensively toward another race when situations develop that arouse an awareness of insecurity, a sense of fear, a loss of status caused by the latter race.

3. As peoples become better informed about one another, social distances tend to decrease gradually between them, unless unequal competition develops that arouses insecurity, fear, loss of status.

4. A people feels nearer to another people of similar culture patterns and backgrounds than to other peoples unless serious competition of some kind occurs between them.

5. The reactions of some members of a people may become more friendly and the reactions of other members of the same people may become more unfriendly at the same time, and hence the arithmetic mean by itself of the total number of race reactions may not reveal any change in race relations.

6. The use of a social distance scale needs to be supplemented by depth interviewing involving a widespread sampling of the subjects in order to obtain related experiences and, more important, the explanations of the reactions to the given experiences.

7. Questionnaires are useful for obtaining reports of experiences that precede racial reactions, but are not penetrating enough as a rule to locate the reasons why people react as they do in their racial experiences.

8. A racial distance scale is useful in measuring the amount of racial reactions, in making comparisons of racial reactions, and in locating changes in racial reactions, while depth interviewing in particular is important in locating the reasons for racial reactions and for the changes that occur in them.

9. The rank order of social distance ratings gives an indication of the social status accorded each of the racial groups.

ETHNIC DISTANCE SCALE (1st edition 1925; 9th, 1954) E. S. Bogardus
(Ethnic is used here largely in the cultural sense.)

1. In order to keep Scale anonymous, do not sign name, but give yourself as much freedom as possible; use only check marks.
2. Please give your first feeling reactions in every case.
3. Give your feeling reactions to each ethnic group in terms of the chief picture or stereotype you have of entire group. Mark each group even if you do not know it.
4. Check as many of seven columns in each case as your feelings dictate.
5. Work as rapidly as possible.

	1 Would marry into group	2 Would have as close friends	3 Would have as next door neighbors	4 Would work in same office	5 Have as speaking acquaint- ances only	6 Have as visitors only to my nation	7 Would de- bar from my nation
Armenians							
Americans (U.S. white)							
Canadians							
Chinese							
Czechs							
English							
Filipinos							
Finn							
French							
German							
Greeks							
Hollanders							
Indians (American)							
Indians (of India)							
Irish							

1. Please remember to give your first feeling reactions for every group.
2. Remember to give feeling reactions to your chief picture of each group as a whole.
3. Also, to check as many columns for each group as you can, and to work rapidly.

Italians							
Japanese							
Japanese Americans							
Jews							
Koreans							
Mexicans							
Mexican Americans							
Negroes							
Norwegians							
Poles							
Russians							
Scots							
Spanish							
Swedish							
Turks							

- Please check. (1) Your ethnic backgrounds: Caucasian __, Mongoloid __, Negro __.
- (2) Your religious backgrounds: R. Catholic __, Jewish __, Protestant __, Other __.
- (3) Rural backgrounds __, urban backgrounds __. (4) Sex: male __, female __.
- (5) Education: 8th grade __, high school grad. __, 2 yrs. coll. __, coll. grad __, postgrad. work __.
- (6) Age: under 15 __, 15 to 30 __, 31 to 50 __, 50 or over __.
- (7) Occupation: none __, student __, housewife __, unskilled worker __, skilled __, clerical or secretarial __, managerial __, executive __, professional __.
- (8) Annual income: none __, under \$2500 __, \$2500 to \$5000 __, over \$5000 __.

PACIFIC SOCIOLOGICAL NEWS

University of California, Berkeley. Reinhard Bendix, newly appointed chairman of the department, has received the 1958 annual Mac-Iver award for the best sociological work of the year, *Work and Authority in Industry*. Charles Y. Glock, professor of sociology and director of the Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia University, has accepted an appointment as professor of sociology and director of the newly established Center for Survey Research. Ernest Greenwood, now professor in the School of Social Welfare, is conducting research on social work as a profession and has recently completed a study of the careers of a sample of social workers. Judson T. Landis, professor of family sociology in the Department of Home Economics has been elected to the General Council of the International Union of Family Organizations. He has returned to Berkeley after teaching at the University of Alaska. Jack London, associate professor in the School of Education, served as a faculty fellow in the Summer Institute of Social Gerontology at the University of Connecticut. Anselm Strauss, assistant professor of sociology at the University of Chicago, has been appointed as an associate professor of sociology in the School of Nursing of the University of California. Clark E. Vincent, assistant professor of family sociology in the Department of Home Economics, has completed a study of *Unwed Mothers* which will be published shortly.

Oregon State College. William A. Foster, Jr., a recent Ph.D. in rural sociology at Cornell University, joined the staff as an assistant professor. Frank L. Parks, associate professor of sociology, taught at the University of Colorado School of Education during the summer. Hans H. Plambeck, professor of sociology, is a member of a college-wide coordinating committee for a comprehensive two-year study of the human and natural resources of the Warm Springs Indian Reservation.

Stanford University. Takeyoshi Kawashima, professor of sociology at Tokyo University, has been appointed visiting professor of sociology for the coming academic year. Dr. Kawashima will offer courses on Japanese family and society, areas in which he has published seven books. Charles Drekmeier, who is receiving his Ph.D. in social science from Harvard University, has been appointed assistant professor of sociology. He will give courses in political sociology and social thought. The department has received a grant from the Russell Sage Foundation to plan,

in collaboration with the Stanford Medical School, a teaching and research program in medical sociology. Edmund H. Volkart, executive head of the Department of Sociology, and Thomas Gonda, executive head of the Department of Psychiatry, are directing the project. Robert A. Ellis, assistant professor of sociology, has received a grant-in-aid from the Society for the Investigation of Human Ecology to initiate a study of social differences in the academic performance of college undergraduates. David Mechanic and Leslie C. Waldo have received Public Health Service research fellowships from the National Institute of Mental Health. Alex Clarke has received a William Randolph and Dora Haynes Foundation Fellowship.

Pomona College. Professor Alvin H. Scaff has been re-elected editor of the *Alpha Kappa Deltan* of the national sociology honor society, Alpha Kappa Delta.

Professor Emeritus Ray Baber has returned from a two-year membership on the faculty of International Christian University, Tokyo, where his time was divided between teaching and research in sociology.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND WELFARE

TORNADOES OVER TEXAS. By Harry Estill Moore. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1958, pp. xxiii+334.

What happens when a community is struck by disaster? Civic leaders and social scientists seeking answers to this question will want to turn to a study of two Texas cities that were struck by tornadoes in 1953.

A research team under the direction of Harry Moore of the University of Texas spent more than a year collecting data by interview and study of records. The results include comparisons between the immediate rescue operations and the later and longer process of rehabilitation; between Waco, where the worst damage was in the business district, and San Angelo, where a residential district and school were struck; and between reactions in the different income, racial, and age groups.

The scantiness of previous research in this field and the need for haste in collecting the data precluded rigorous testing of the many hypotheses formulated in the course of the study. On the other hand, insight is provided into such problems as why the Red Cross was unpopular in spite of the large-scale aid it provided.

BRUCE M. PRINGLE

Southern Methodist University

MODERN COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE. By E. E. LeMasters. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957, pp. xxvii+619.

The book aims to assist students in becoming oriented to societal problems related to modern courtship and marriage as well as to aid them in their own personal adjustment, and to present a more complete analysis of the American courtship system than is found in other texts in this area. Theoretically, the analysis is oriented toward "functionalism." The data have been drawn from a wide range of sources and from the author's own experience as a teacher of marriage and family courses and as a family case worker. After the introductory section on "perspectives," the main divisions of the text deal with "the American courtship system" and "marriage in modern society."

The American marriage system is monogamous and semipatriarchal, but the courtship system is of a romantic type, leaving the young people much on their own. Courtship is competitive, youth-centered, flexible, democratic, and involves a progressive commitment process. If the process is not altered by a variety of circumstances and conditions, it involves the following steps or stages: group and random dating, going steady, engagement, and marriage. Going steady seems to be the preferred dating status. After marriage, some of the conditions and problems include the delicate matters of marital and sexual adjustment, money matters, religion, child-rearing, and not too infrequently marital failure. These and other phases of courtship and marriage are discussed with candor and documented to indicate the basic findings. The suggested references are selective, designed to aid students in further study. On the whole, this is one of the better texts on courtship and marriage.

M.H.N.

ENRICHING FAMILY LIFE: THROUGH HOME, SCHOOL, AND COMMUNITY. By Bess B. Lane. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1958, pp. xiv+121.

The main purpose of this book is to provide information of value to parents and parent study groups. One of the basic assumptions is that parents can be of great help to one another. The material was derived chiefly from parents and is transmitted to other parents who may benefit from the experiences related in the book. Questions for study and bibliographies for further study are added.

M.H.N.

PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATION. Second Revised Edition. By Emory S. Bogardus. Chicago: The Cooperative League, 1958, pp. 77.

In this revised edition (first published in 1952) a number of factual points are brought up to date and recognition is taken of new developments in the world cooperative movement. Revisions have been made throughout the book in order to facilitate an understanding of the seven basic principles on which cooperatives operate. These principles, characteristic of cooperatives in practically all democratic countries of the world, are discussed in terms of the following concepts: democracy, voluntarism, autonomy, equity, mutuality, universality, and evolution. Special attention is given to educational techniques for developing cooperatives, which are described as representing "the private property system and free enterprise in their finest expressions." This analysis of cooperatives merits close scrutiny by individuals interested in the principles of cooperative action from either an academic or a practical point of view.

WOODROW W. SCOTT

George Pepperdine College

GOVERNMENT AND SOCIAL WELFARE. By Wayne Vasey. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1958, pp. 506.

The author, dean of the Graduate School of Social Work at Rutgers University, describes in this volume the respective roles of federal, state, and local governments in providing welfare services. He has brought together, in concise and readable style, a knowledge and understanding gained both from his own rich direct personal experience in local, state, and federal welfare administration and from his experience in teaching this subject.

The book is divided into three parts: Background, Programs, and Organization. The first deals with the scope of needs and services, describing the philosophical base for the assumption of responsibility by government for social welfare programs. While some attention is directed toward the relationship of governmental and voluntary services, it is regrettably brief, leaving only the purpose of providing some perspective on the total welfare picture.

The second part describes the social insurances, the public assistance programs, and other programs such as Child Welfare Services, Mental Health Programs, Correctional Programs. This section is particularly valuable. The naturally complex material is presented with a clarity that makes it of special importance in undergraduate curricula of social welfare; the illustrations contained in the first two parts of the volume are

useful in emphasizing points of importance so that the ordinarily complicated legal provisions of the programs assume a simplicity that is very desirable in teaching those being exposed for the first time to learning about this essential and intricate segment of our society.

Like the two companion parts, the third, concerned with organization, structure, and relationships of agencies established on a federal or state or local basis, is presented with a quality of chatty simplicity that contributes to its value as a tool in undergraduate education. The selected references that appear at the end of each chapter are a further aid.

FRANCES LOMAS FELDMAN

*School of Social Work,
University of Southern California*

THE AGED IN AMERICAN SOCIETY. By Joseph T. Drake. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958, pp. ix+431.

This is an excellent college textbook on gerontology. In the first of five parts the author traces the evolution of mores relating to the aged from a primitive agrarian society to our present urban-industrial organization. He shows how improved medical care and improved living conditions have increased the proportion of the aged, creating a minority problem to which society is giving belated adjustment. In the second part he discusses the difficulties of the aged in remaining employed or in finding new jobs. Part three takes up economic needs of the aged. Plans of federal, state, and private agencies to meet these needs are presented in detail. The fourth part is devoted to a study of physical and mental illness of the aged and problems of rehabilitation, retraining, and psychological adjustment. The last part of the book stresses the rapidly increasing concern of society for the aged and the attention being given to their housing, recreation, general comfort, and to the study of their problems.

The most noteworthy quality of the book is the fact that the author looks upon an aged person as a human being rather than as a statistic. Quoting the classic four wishes of Thomas he says: "Every person has a need for security, recognition, response, and experience. These needs vary—but if they are not satisfied in some measure, the person becomes mal-adjusted emotionally." The value of the book is enhanced by the inclusion of thirteen pages of bibliography.

JOHN B. GRIFFING

American International Association

TREATMENT OF THE CHILD IN EMOTIONAL CONFLICT. By Hyman S. Lippman, M.D. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956, pp. x+298.

In his treatment of children having an emotional problem the author recognizes four types of such children: (1) the child whose abnormal behavior cannot be controlled by parents or teachers, (2) the neurotic child who is constantly in trouble, (3) the child suffering from emotional conflict, (4) the unstable and immature child.

A section of the book is devoted to each of these types and its subdivisions. Among the more unusual forms of conflict encountered were the child with school phobia, the overprotected child, the narcissistic child, and the effeminate child. Each is given profound discussion, and case studies are used to illuminate the problem and the difficulties involved.

The background and prior experiences of children as portrayed throw much light on causes of conflict and difficulty. Children who have remained in institutions several years are found to be markedly narcissistic. The unsocialized child is too often the victim of an unwelcome or an unhappy home or of inconsiderate and temperamental parents.

The author agrees with the conclusion reached by Anna Freud's Seminar in Vienna, "that a well-trained, intelligent, non-medical person is qualified to treat neurotically conflicted children." Social workers are now entering the field of direct therapy for such children, but this is a task which requires training not only as a social worker but as a therapist as well. Such workers are now needed in all social agencies concerned with the welfare of children.

The book takes a forward step in insisting that the workers must understand the problems of the family and also know the community. No longer can the treatment of a child be attempted apart from the environmental conditions in which he lives. The child with emotional conflicts should be treated by a psychiatric team consisting of the case worker, the clinical psychologist, the child psychiatrist, and the group therapist.

G.B.M.

THE ACADEMIC MARKETPLACE. By Theodore Caplow and Reece J. McGee. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1958, pp. 262.

This book represents the first major effort to analyze university teaching as an occupation. The researchers selected nine universities (unnamed) and investigated the facts surrounding all professorial vacancies

and replacements which occurred in the liberal arts departments during the academic years 1954-55 and 1955-56. Some 237 vacancies were listed for the nine institutions. The research team interviewed some 215 chairmen and 162 peers of the professors who vacated their positions. Most of the interviews reflected some of the basic dynamics involved in academic mobility.

Significant findings of the work center on how the vacancies occur, how performance is evaluated, the strategy of getting offers and counter offers, procedures of recruitment, patterns of choice, who does the active recruitment, and some thoughtful recommendations concerning termination of faculty contracts and faculty recruitment. The median age of professors when they leave for new positions is as follows: 34, assistant professor; 42, associate professor; and 57, for a full professor. It appears that most faculty men leave, not because of higher salaries elsewhere, but because of personal problems and personal relations. Some of the quotations appear to be sociological gems. The book is interesting, perhaps a little too interesting for some rigorous methodologists.

E.C.M.

COOPERATIVE HOUSING MANUAL. Steps to Cooperative Housing in Nova Scotia. By Joe Laben. Antigonish, Nova Scotia: Extension Department, St. Francis Xavier University, 1958, pp. 84.

A remarkable fact about this manual is that it is written by a man who has worked in coal mines for twenty-five years. The ambition of this coal miner was awakened by the stimulating ideas of Father J. J. Tompkins, who told him and others that they could build and own their homes if they wanted to badly enough, even though at first they lacked money and the know-how.

Joe Laben has been a cooperative housing expert for twenty years, since he and ten other miners built Tompkinville (with help from Mary Arnold), a housing project of eleven homes. "Joe" has supervised about seventy other similar cooperative projects. This booklet gives the practical details for carrying through to completion a cooperative housing project. Ten to fourteen is considered to be the best number of families to join together in building their homes cooperatively. Study group meetings each week for several months are considered essential for success in entering on a cooperative housing project. This booklet is far more important than its modest claims and detailed specifications would seem to indicate.

E.S.B.

CHILDREN OF THE KIBBUTZ. By Melford E. Spire. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1958, pp. xx+500.

This book represents a study of a collective agricultural settlement (Kibbutz) in Israel. The Kibbutz practices comprehensive collective living, communal ownership, and cooperative enterprise. More than three hundred such settlements are scattered over the country. They are welcomed as an experiment in collective enterprise and the achievement of brotherhood. Money is rejected by them as a medium of exchange, the profit motive has been eliminated as a stimulus to production, and the distribution of goods is determined by the principle of "from each according to his ability, to each according to his needs."

The field work for this book, carried out by the author and his wife, required participation by the two in the work and social life of the group studied.

According to the Kibbutz plan, children are removed soon after birth to small cottages and cared for by nurses and other attendants. Parents may daily visit their children, but the nurse assumes virtually all the functions and duties of the parents. After completing the first grade, the children from seven to twelve move into the grammar school. Here they live as in earlier years in bisexual dormitories.

All courses in the humanities and social services are taught in the light of Marxism (p. 257). Many of the activities of the children are expected to result in socialized behavior without deliberate control by nurses and other workers. The techniques of social control are various, but the abdication of authority by the teachers is a frequent occurrence.

At the age of twelve the children enter the combined junior-senior high school, and activities and training suitable to these older children are carried on.

Part VI deals especially with the sabras, adult individuals who have graduated from the Kibbutz but are continuing as functionary members of the organization. Although they exhibit a high degree of cultural conformity, serious problems of emotional adjustment remain. The program of socialization, in spite of certain indications of insecurity, has yielded an efficient, productive, and functioning adult.

Appendix B is most valuable in that it outlines the five-grade curriculum of the Kibbutz high school.

The author wisely hesitates to generalize results because his observations relate to the activities of a single Kibbutz only. Further study is contemplated.

G.B.M.

FACT BOOK ON COOPERATIVES WITH 1957-1958 DEVELOPMENTS.

Chicago: The Cooperative League of the USA, 1958, pp. 56.

This new edition brings the major facts about the cooperative movement in the United States up to date. Special attention is given to the new developments of consumer cooperatives, of farm marketing cooperatives, of national cooperative organizations; and to the ways in which co-ops pay all the kinds of taxes that other forms of business do. Thirty-five photographs enliven the pages, and a list of many other publications of the Cooperative League adds to the usefulness of this *Fact Book*.

E.S.B.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL ACTION. By Mary F. Walsh and Paul H. Furfey. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958, pp. xiv+465.

In this volume written by two professors of sociology of the Catholic University of America, the major social problems considered relate to mental care and mental health, the American family, the juvenile delinquent, the adult criminal, intergroup problems (prejudice and racial minorities), the American economy, the subproletariat (the lower-lower class), and war. Each of these problems is carefully tested "in the light of actual, contemporary conditions" and of "the whole social situation" in which it occurs.

A unique chapter is the one on "America's Balance Sheet," in which the authors indicate "some characteristics of American society" which "actually generate social problems," and, on the other hand, suggest other characteristics which aid in controlling the conditions that create problems. Another special feature of the book is a "bibliographical essay" at the close of each chapter, which in an informal way cites and evaluates important current literature pertaining to the subjects of the given chapters.

The authors state the position of the Catholic Church regarding the solution of social problems in terms of "charity" and "social action," which are concepts with specific Catholic meanings. The treatment of social problems throughout the book is consistent with the special meaning of these concepts. More space might have been given to the city as a social problem, to the use of leisure, to immigration and refugee problems, to international relations as a social problem, although of course a limitation has to be established and choices made regarding the main emphasis.

E.S.B.

EGO PSYCHOLOGY AND DYNAMIC CASEWORK. Papers from the Smith College School for Social Work. Edited by Howard J. Parad. New York: Family Service Association of America, 1958, pp. 282.

Written under the aegis of the Smith College School for Social Work, the nineteen papers by social workers, psychiatrists, and social scientists included in this volume propose "to examine the impact of ego psychology on casework practice" and to relate casework theory to new developments in the social sciences. As indicated in the Introduction, "the reader will find in these pages a series of interrelated inquiries into the dynamics of personality and the technical problems of casework treatment." The book does not pretend to offer a definitive statement of casework theory, but is rather "an exploration into the subtleties of diagnosis and treatment, with consideration of ways in which the understanding of ego phenomena can be effectively applied in helping relationships." The papers have been organized into three sections: (1) Ego Psychology and Casework Theory; (2) Selected Applications in Casework Practice; and (3) Toward New Knowledge for Practice.

In the first section such distinguished social work educators as Gordon Hamilton, Florence Hollis, and the late Annette Garrett discuss the contributions of psychoanalytic thought (notably the theories of Sigmund Freud) to casework theory and method, and the later contributions of Anna Freud to the social worker's understanding of ego functioning. The application of ego psychology to casework practice is seen as an important modern trend, influencing the caseworker's thinking and activity with reference to the worker-client relationship, personality diagnosis, and treatment objectives and methods.

In the second section several psychiatrists and social workers discuss the dynamics and treatment involved in a few specific case situations, making application of ego psychology concepts in the presentations.

The third section includes articles by social workers, psychiatrists, and social scientists discussing opportunities and problems in social work and clinical research, and ways of furthering interdisciplinary collaboration and the productive use of social science materials in social work. Of particular interest to social scientists will be Herman Stein's paper on "Social Science in Social Work Practice and Education."

Ego Psychology and Dynamic Casework will appeal primarily to the social work audience for which it was written, since it deals in social work terminology with casework practice. The psychological orientation is Freudian, and the ego psychology discussed stems from Anna Freud's

theories concerning the ego's patterns of adaptation and ways (conscious and unconscious) of coping with life's daily problems and stresses. While the book's emphasis is an application of a particular psychological theory of personality to a particular professional helping method, the material should hold interest for all disciplines concerned with the nature of man and the nature of therapy. The authors all stress the importance of a *psychosocial* approach in thinking about and dealing with people—an approach that sees the "person in the situation" and hence makes use of both psychological and social science theories. The book adheres to its central purpose in presenting the impact of ego psychology on social work, but also (albeit briefly) considers the relevance to social work practice of theoretical advances in the social as well as the behavioral sciences.

LOLA G. SELBY

*School of Social Work,
University of Southern California*

TEACH THEM TO LIVE: A Study of Education in English Prisons. By Frances Banks. New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1958, pp. xxiv+287.

In all that has been written about prisons and prison life, only a few references deal with the growth of educational programs in prisons. This is one of the most important aspects of rehabilitation of prisoners. The historical growth of prison education is briefly traced. This is followed by discussions of students and conditions; education as therapy; education for culture, recreation, and vocation; the means of study, including libraries, study rooms, and correspondence courses; the place of education in prisons for women; and the problems associated with staffing for education, especially the qualifications and training of staff members and the integration of education with the total program in prisons. The book is packed with information and ideas. Possibly the greatest development in the training of prisoners has been the establishment of the open prison system. The therapeutic approach, including group as well as individual therapy, has been used to good advantage. Vocational training, work experience while in prison, education for leisure and recreation (drama groups, art classes, hobbies and handicrafts, and physical culture), the provision of library facilities, and other educational developments in prisons are described in considerable detail. It is evident from the emphasis and material used in the book that the author is a passionate believer in providing better education for prisoners.

M.H.N.

DRUG ADDICTION: PHYSIOLOGICAL, PSYCHOLOGICAL, AND SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS. By D. P. Ausubel. New York: Random House, 1958, pp. vii+126.

This small volume constitutes a compact treatise on the problem of drug addiction, the physiological and psychological effects of opiates, the psychological and social characteristics of opiate addiction, elements of treatment and prognosis, addiction to nonopiate drugs (marihuana, barbiturates, cocaine, and benzedrine), and the prevention of drug addiction. The effects of opiates on the users are described in considerable detail. The author recognizes the difficulties in classifying drug addicts and in ascertaining the causal factors. He thinks that the most defensible classification in the light of available evidence includes three main types: "primary addiction, in which opiates have specific adjustive value for particular personality defects; symptomatic addiction, in which the use of opiates has no particular adjustive value and is only an incidental symptom of behavior disorder; and reactive addiction, in which drug use is a transitory developmental phenomenon in essentially normal individuals influenced by distorted peer group norms" (p. 39). Clinical studies show that over one half of the addicts are in the first group, i.e., they are primary addicts. They suffer from various types of personality disorders or inadequacies and they are the most difficult to cure. The author feels that Lindesmith's habit theory of opiate addiction, with the emphasis on the withdrawal-distress factor, and Becker's similar explanation of the genesis of marihuana use are inadequate, chiefly on the ground that they do not account for the factors of personality predispositions, which he regards as most important. However, the author does not stress sufficiently the sociological factors involved in drug addictions.

In dealing with the problem of drug addiction, various methods of treatment and preventive measures are described. It is evident from the studies of the treatment of addicts that much research is needed before an adequate program of control can be put into operation. Pharmacological research in the prevention of narcotic addiction does not offer much hope for the discovery of an effective analgesic. Research along psychological, psychiatric, and sociological lines seems to be more fruitful. "Perhaps the most important of the research tasks is the definitive identification through controlled longitudinal studies of the personality factors that predispose addiction and affect prognosis and the outcome of therapy" (p. 119). Other research problems include the influence of cultural tolerance and group pressures in the various stages of drug addiction, the conditions under which relapses occur, and the relative efficacy of different forms of therapy.

M.H.N.

FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR. By F. Ivan Nye. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958, pp. xvii+168.

Recognizing that there are disproportionate numbers of delinquent children from broken homes in reformatories and training schools, the author used noninstitutionalized school groups to ascertain the forms and extent of deviant behavior and the possible relationship of the family to the various types of behavior patterns. After a brief discussion of the various frames of reference that have been used to study delinquent behavior, the methodology and general framework of the present study are described. The family structure in relation to delinquent behavior is analyzed, especially the socioeconomic status, size, composition (broken-unbroken), ethnic backgrounds, and affiliations outside the family; legally and psychologically broken homes; employed mothers; and spatial mobility. The final and more extensive part of the study deals with parent-adolescent relationships as these affect delinquent behavior. The acceptance-rejection matrix, the problems of discipline and punishment, freedom and responsibility, family recreation, parental disposition and character, value agreement, money matters, information, and advice are discussed. The descriptive and analytical material on parent-child relationships treats delinquent behavior as a variable rather than an attribute.

The sample included both delinquents and nondelinquents in three small Washington towns (population 10,000 to 30,000) and additional data for comparative purposes. "Two basic, related problems were encountered in the collection of the research data. First, it was necessary to create research instruments which would measure delinquent behavior, parental rejection, attitudes toward discipline, freedom, money distribution, parental interaction, and other variables in family interaction" (p. 11). The next problem was to secure reliable data from the respondents. The delinquency scale included a list of 23 items. Anonymous questionnaires were administered in classrooms of grades 9 to 12. Both the size of the sample and the careful administration of the questionnaires provided a fairly adequate basis for measuring the family relationships in relation to delinquency. Interviews with a sample of parents would have provided a check on the answers given by the boys and girls studied. The questionnaire method presents a cross-sectional rather than a developmental picture of the subjects studied. However, the care with which the data were gathered and analyzed obviated some of the methodological difficulties.

It is not possible to review the basic findings. Most of the book is devoted to a summary of the findings, which are compared with the findings of other studies. The behavior patterns of the "most delinquent" and the "least delinquent" are compared. The study represents a significant contribution to the family in relation to delinquent behavior and the extent of delinquency in the age groups studied.

M.H.N.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN INDONESIA. By Mohammad Hatta, Vice-President, Republic of Indonesia, 1945-1956. With an Introduction by Roesli Rahim, Head of the Cooperative Service. Edited by George McT. Kahim. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1957, pp. xxxiv+121.

This volume records the remarkable progress that cooperatives have made in Indonesia in the past few years, considering all the handicaps that they have had. It also portrays the tremendous need for their further development and extension. A far-reaching comprehension of the principles of cooperatives is shown in the addresses on cooperation given by former Vice-President Hatta, and also by Mr. Rahim in the Preface.

The Government of Indonesia considers cooperatives "a means, even a basic principle, for the reconstruction of the economy in Indonesia," and has established a Cooperative Service Department in the Ministry of Economic Affairs. A total of 7,700 cooperatives with a combined membership of 1,180,000 is considered only a beginning of what is needed. The government regards the establishment of cooperatives as "an ideal means for providing practical training in the economic field, the safest way for forming national capital, and at the same time a means for animating the initiative of the peasant and strengthening his self-respect." Cooperatives develop both solidarity and individuality. It is highly significant that important government leaders in Southeast Asia present the significance of cooperatives as clearly as do Mr. Hatta and Mr. Rahim.

E.S.B.

THE ROLE OF FACTORING IN MODERN BUSINESS FINANCE. By Clyde William Phelps. Baltimore: Education Division, Commercial Credit Company, 1956, pp. 70.

What is factoring? The author says, "Modern factoring involves a continuing agreement under which a financing institution assumes the credit and collection function for its client, purchases his receivables as they arise without recourse to him for credit losses, and, because of these relationships, performs other auxiliary functions for its client." This definition suggests the range of analysis undertaken in this monograph.

The idea of factoring is not new, yet the growing importance of its functions in the modern economy is not generally known or realized. Currently about 4 billion dollars of financing assistance is being supplied to American business firms annually through the factoring of open accounts receivable, and other factoring functions are becoming increasingly important. Of special significance to economists and sociologists is the author's explanation of factoring as a social institution which needs to be understood in terms of its methods, policies, and functions.

J.E.N.

PEOPLES AND CULTURE

SINHALESE VILLAGE. By Bryce Ryan. Coral Gables, Florida: University of Miami Press, 1958, pp. x+229.

This book consists of a part of the findings of a broad research project of Ceylon Village Society, which was conducted by the staff of the Sociology Department of the University of Ceylon, during the period of 1948-52. Pelpola, the specific subject of the book, a village of about four hundred households, is located in the Low Country of Ceylon, the most urbanized section of the island. This community was chosen as a sample of village culture undergoing change in that area, and one might say that it is also a "sample" of Sinhalese culture in general. Since one of the main objects of the study was to analyze cultural change taking place in Ceylon Village Society, the frame of reference had to be Sinhalese folk culture. The study included community structure, economic activities, familial and kinship relationships, religion, and social stratification. These are described and analyzed from the standpoint of change, that is, transition from sacred to secular society. Historical, statistical, descriptive, and comparative approaches were used in collecting and analyzing the materials.

The reviewer, who is familiar with Bulgarian peasant society, was much impressed by a number of striking similarities in Sinhalese and old Bulgarian village culture, especially so because the two cultures are far apart geographically. In the reviewer's opinion, this book is an important contribution to our knowledge of folk cultures that are in the process of change.

LOUIS PETROFF

Southern Illinois University

DESEGREGATION: SOME PROPOSITIONS AND RESEARCH SUGGESTIONS. Prepared by Edward A. Suchman, John P. Dean, and Robin M. Williams, Jr. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1958, pp. 128.

This treatise summarizes comprehensively the relevant knowledge concerning desegregation and presents a number of promising implications of such knowledge for the actual course of desegregation in the United States. The authors are cautious in purporting what seem to be the principles and facts uncovered by the behavioral sciences of pertinence to the process of desegregation. They are aware that a great deal more research needs to be undertaken before the "level of confidence" in specific action programs can approach anything like complete endorsement. Most of the basic ideas and suggestions for research in this area emerge from some seven years of intensive work undertaken by the Cornell Studies in Intergroup Relations. The work is unusually well organized and is a gold mine for dissertation topics.

E.C.M.

FROM COMMUNITY TO METROPOLIS. A Biography of São Paulo, Brazil. By Richard M. Morse. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1958, pp. xxiii+341.

This is a thoroughgoing treatise by a historian of the development of a metropolitan center that was founded in 1554 by the Jesuits in a region remote from Western civilization and in an infertile land area. For years it grew very little, but, beginning about 1890, its growth made phenomenal strides. Today its population exceeds 3,000,000, and the maximum has not yet been attained. This amazing population increase finds its basis in part in a coffee-growing boom, a cattle-raising hinterland, an impetus due to railroad connections with Rio de Janeiro and with the port city of Santos, a marked industrial development, a relatively large immigration from Italy and a smaller amount of immigration from Japan.

The city's energy is doubtless due to a considerable degree to the nature of the Italian immigrants, who came from north Italy and who possessed the industrious traits characteristic of the German immigrants who have contributed so much to the growth of certain regions in the United States. A great deal remains to be done sociologically in completing this biography of a city.

E.S.B.

THE POPULATION AHEAD. Edited by Roy G. Francis. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958, pp. x + 160.

Population studies are necessarily concerned with numbers, but the papers making up this symposium are also directing attention to the qualities that will prove desirable in the numbers we breed, both on the physiological and on the cultural side. These papers are notably moderate in their citation of statistics as such, while emphasizing the probable consequences of demographic change if the present trends are continued. From this standpoint, the papers of timely interest include the following: *A Generation of Demographic Change*, by Pascal K. Whelpton; *Optimum Rates of Population Growth*, by Frederick Osborn; *The Man-Land Ratio*, by Jan O. M. Broek; and *The Equilibrium Population*, by Edward S. Deevey. Other population factors presented are essential to round out the symposium, such as the implications of minimum subsistence for an explosive increase in population, the genetic future of man, and cultural aspects of the population problem. The symposium as a whole will prove to be valuable for courses in population and particularly refreshing for its style of interpretation.

J.E.N.

WEST OF THE GREAT DIVIDE. NORWEGIAN MIGRATION TO THE PACIFIC COAST, 1847-1893. By Kenneth O. Bjork. Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1958, pp. 671.

In this historical narrative Professor Bjork recounts, with exceptional sympathy and insight, the Norwegian immigration into the region of the United States which is "West of the Great Divide"—tracing the Norwegian pioneers into California in the days of the gold rush, into the Mormon West, Washington Territory and Oregon, and in certain sections of the Rockies. The people depicted were hardy and venturesome, engaged in mining, farming, fishing, shipbuilding, and other activities according to their talents. They were a religious people and established not only their traditional Lutheran church but other Protestant denominations; these developed in response to social and psychological differences among them which were concealed under a cloak of theological conflict.

Personal letters, anecdotes, leadership factors, and other glimpses of Norwegian motivation lend human interest to the story. The author's perspective is broad, Norwegian western migration being dealt with as a movement, and the book is commendable as a major contribution to immigrant and western history.

J.E.N.

MISSIONARIES, CHINESE, AND DIPLOMATS. *The Protestant Missionary Movement in China, 1890-1952.* By Paul A. Varg. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1958, pp. xii+335.

This is a historical study of the American Protestant missionary movement in China, with emphasis on the attitudes of the missionaries and their home church toward the Chinese people and what they conceive to be the central purposes of missionary work. Viewing religion as a phase of culture, the author discusses the changing religious emphases in America through the years as reflected in the attitudes of the missionaries. He is especially critical of the early missionaries who were afire with evangelical zeal but short in sociological perspective, who looked upon the Chinese as depraved heathens (pp. 18, 114 ff.), and who "made war on the whole Chinese value system" (p. 35).

The facts are well documented, and the style of writing is very readable. The data are gleaned from the files of the Department of State and the Missionary Research Library, from the letters and reports of missionaries on their work and on conditions in China, and from the writings of Chinese and American writers. Missionary work has not been more successful, the author points out, not only because of its early reliance on "unequal treaties" and privileges associated with imperialism, not only because the missionaries lived in walled compounds symbolic of their isolation from the stream of social life in the land they tried to serve, but because it failed to provide a program to solve the political and economic problems with which the Chinese were much more concerned than with the saving of souls (pp. 319 ff.). In his conclusion, he makes an interesting attempt to apply the lesson learned from missionary work to the larger problem of U.S. policy and U.S. aid to the lesser developed countries. While the missionaries were concerned with narrow evangelism, the American government was concerned with commerce and failed to see the significance of the Chinese revolution. In contrast, "the Soviet Union sacrificed the petty advantages of commerce in order to win the larger battle" (p. 322).

Though critical, the book is not unsympathetic to the missionary movement. Credit is given to liberal-minded and farsighted missionaries who tried to map out a larger program of social significance, but "the great majority of missionaries did not go along; they side-stepped political and economic issues" (p. 320).

THEODORE CHEN

A BLACK CIVILIZATION. *A Social Study of an Australian Tribe.* Revised Edition. By W. Lloyd Warner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, pp. xx+618.

This study has, since its first publication in 1937, ranked as one of the best concerning Australian natives, and it is fortunate that a revised edition is now available. The tribe studied is the Murngin, located in Arnhem Land in Northern Australia. These natives belong to the aboriginal Australoid race found throughout Australia—not Mongoloid, Negroid, or Caucasian, but a variant group which seems to be a blend of various features of the white and black races. They have a Stone Age culture, their technical development falling between the Old and New Stone ages.

Warner deals at length with the social structure and supernaturalism of these tropical Australian people. The family and kinship structure is one of the most intensely organized known to anthropologists, and the age grading structure is basic in their social grouping in general. Institutionalized aspects of their warfare are dealt with at length, also their practice of magic and medicine, and their totemism which is uniquely significant in Australian native life. There are nine appendices which constitute an important part of the book. Besides a few illustrations, there are sixteen charts to delineate the complex kinship and group organizations.

J.E.N.

HUMAN TYPES. *An Introduction to Social Anthropology.* By Raymond Firth. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, 1958, pp. 176.

In this new paperback "Mentor Book," the author, who is professor of anthropology, University of London, revises an older work, and gives "the main problems discussed and conclusions reached in modern social anthropology." This is an up-to-date, well-balanced, concise, and important treatise of such themes as racial traits and mental difference, work and wealth of primitive communities, principles of social structure, the regulation of conduct, reason and unreason in human beliefs, and anthropology in modern life. A selected list of readings and eight plates, chiefly of primitive people, are appended in this handy, compact document.

A.R.R.

THE DISPLACED PERSON AND THE SOCIAL AGENCY. A Study of the Casework Process in Its Relation to Immigrant Adjustment. By David Crystal. Rochester, New York: United Hias Service and the Jewish Social Service Bureau of Rochester, 1958, pp. 182.

A displaced person in this study is defined as a person who has been forced by war or subsequent circumstances to flee from his homeland. He has no government or society which would welcome him home and has to seek a new way of life. In many cases he is stateless.

The study involves 182 clients arriving at a given casework agency where a research design was set up to test three hypotheses, two of which seem to have been well supported by the results. The first of these findings indicates that those displaced persons "who seemed to be most relaxed and least threatened in their initial contact with the agency" are "the same people who constructively use the social services and require these services for the briefest period." The second finding shows that "as hostility toward the services of the agency fails to diminish in intensity," so economic dependency of the subjects persists. E.S.B.

CLINICAL STUDIES IN CULTURE CONFLICT. Edited by Georgene Seward. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958, pp. xvii+598.

It is not easy to make socioclinical problems concrete, but to this end the editor has collected case studies from professional colleagues in psychology, psychiatry, anthropology, and from the social worker; the volume is commendable for its contribution in an important area of conflict analysis. The patients who have suffered conflicts associated with ethnic minority status, which is the factor on which attention is focused, include the Negro, the American Indian, the Mexican-American, the Puerto Rican, the Filipino, the Japanese, and the Jew. The diagnosis in each case is remarkably thorough and objective from early childhood onward, and specific findings in response to clinical tests in current practice round out the report in each case. The compilation shows the great importance of culture conflict in psychopathology. The emphasis of the book is diagnostic. J.E.N.

WHITE MAN, LISTEN! By Richard Wright. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1957, pp. 190.

This group of revised lectures deals first with a series of attitudes of white and colored people in thinking about each other as expressed in special terms, such as "frog perspective," the suspicion of stupidity, neg-

ative loyalty, flight into the past. In the second part the theme is "tradition and industrialization." Through industrialization white men have tried "to harness the body of colored mankind into personal service." Racism was introduced for the colored people and profits for the whites, but, says the author, "freedom is indivisible." White men aimed "to save the souls of a billion or so heathens and to receive the material blessings of God while doing so."

The third part presents a variety of sample quotations from the literature of the Negro in the United States, and what "some of that writing means, how it came to be written, what relationship it had to its time, and what it means to us today." He meets these aims forcefully. The fourth and concluding section gives a kind of social case history of how Ghana came to be born; in fact, it is a type of leadership case history, for it deals extensively with Nkrumah, his role in "The Secret Circle," the struggle to free the people from British domination and the problems involved in warding off the efforts of the "black bourgeois leaders of the United Gold Coast Convention" who didn't want independence for their country. This part of the book tells how six black men, organized in The Secret Circle, "unarmed and penniless," lead the way in "establishing a nation of their own in the teeth of British opposition and the stagnant traditions of their own people." As to be expected from the author of *Native Son*, this book, although disconnected, above all else is forthright.

E.S.B.

SOCIAL THEORY AND RESEARCH

THE DYNAMIC OF PLANNED CHANGE. A Comparative Study of Principles and Techniques. By Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958, pp. xi+312.

Personal and social aspirations for change seem to emerge from such trends as the fact that man seizes new opportunities to use or modify natural resources and to adjust to changes in environmental situations. Throughout the book the authors focus discussions upon four types of somewhat overlapping dynamic systems, which they call "levels of problem-solving efforts." These are (1) internal personality factors; (2) group aspects, especially small group systems; (3) the large organizations or systems which comprise the community; and (4) the community, defined politically and ecologically, as a dynamic system which is made up of interacting subparts. Planned change, the types of client systems,

and the role of professional change agents are examined.

The objectives of the study include a comparative analysis of the ways of defining problems and methods, an exploration of the general framework within which the wide variety of techniques and orientations could be conceptualized, a survey of types of research undertakings which seem to contribute directly to the theory of planned change, and to derive from the comparative study of principles and techniques ideas about the training of students in the behavioral sciences and to prepare professional agents of change. Selected illustrations of the work done by several agents of change proceeding upon similar assumptions about what is causing trouble for their clients or client systems and how to help them move toward a more desirable state of affairs provide concrete material. This is followed by a more abstract analysis of the processes of planned change, including the motivation of the client system, various aspects of the change agent's role, and special phases of planned change. The remainder of the book is devoted to such problems as the initiation of planned change, working toward change, problems of research, and the scientific and professional training of the agents of change.

Even though this book is obviously designed to aid those who are interested in the practical aspects of planned change and how to produce and direct it, the discussions in part are theoretical and somewhat formal in nature. Except for the sources indicated in the bibliography, to which references are made in the text of the book, the source material apparently is somewhat limited.

M.H.N.

SURVEY METHODS IN SOCIAL INVESTIGATION. By C. A. Moser.
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1958, pp. 352.

Students of methodology in the behavioral sciences will find this work a rewarding review of the principal problems faced by the researcher in developing a research design and in completing the task. Many of the ideas and techniques discussed in this book were developed over a number of years when the author was lecturing at the London School of Economics. The following topics are discussed: defining the problem, preparing questionnaires, selecting the sample, collecting the responses, tabulating the responses, and presenting the finished product for publication. An unusually strong section is devoted to the difficult problem of sampling, and to the common errors to be avoided in sample selection. The book is characterized by clarity of exposition and maturity of point of view.

E.C.M.

THE PARADOX OF PROGRESSIVE THOUGHT. By David W. Noble.
Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958, pp. viii+272.

This book presents what historian Noble chooses to call a "climate of opinion" held by nine progressive-minded social philosophers in many of their writings from 1880 through 1920. The nine—Herbert Croly, James Mark Baldwin, Charles H. Cooley, F. H. Johnson, H. D. Lloyd, Richard T. Ely, Simon Patten, Thorstein Veblen, and Walter Rauschenbusch—all expounded in their writings some phases of the liberal tradition in America and were attempting to define and delineate social progress. Underlying his exposition of much of their thought, Noble examines the thought and influence of Carl L. Becker, who "believed that he and his contemporaries shared the faith in a rational world developing irresistibly along the course of progress." The writers are shown to have believed in the legacy of progress, with man having power to alter his own institutions.

Croly of *New Republic* fame held that social science could demonstrate that man was social and society cooperative in nature; Cooley averred that society moved onward and upward by the formulation of ever higher ideals; Ely thought that reason and science would reveal the sociological laws of progress and bring about a social utopia; Patten postulated a material world that man could transcend and control; Rauschenbusch could state that God had provided the inspiration for men to visualize the completed outline of heaven on earth. Such were some of the reflections of these men on social progress in an era which came to an end after the first World War. The paradox of progressive thought lies in the postulation of "total freedom accompanied by total uniformity as a basis of the completed commonwealth which would be the Kingdom of God on earth." Now, one asks the question: Is there any chance of man ever becoming so nearly perfect that he will be able to insure constant progress? The author states that Becker's final admonition is that consideration must be paid to "the constant humanity of man throughout time."

M.J.V.

AMERICA AS A CIVILIZATION. *Life and Thought in the United States Today.* By Max Lerner. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1957, pp. xiv +1036.

This truly magnificent book analyzes and interprets American life as completely as one could ever expect in a 1,000-page volume. The reader acquires a conception of American culture as a whole, and yet countless details stand out clearly. The volume has a tremendous scope,

every chapter and section integral to the development of American civilization from its beginnings to its present form.

Beginning with the American cultural heritage, the author goes on to describe the American population and its habitat; the rise of machine culture, capitalist economy and business; the political system with its unique features; the open-class society with its class and caste aspects; the general life cycle of the American, and other characteristics of American culture in its ascendancy. The nature of American thought is stressed in religious and secular terms as an influence in the arts, in literature, and in mass media of communication. Finally, America is interpreted as a world power; the American world image is contrasted with the world's image of America.

Every chapter is rich in detail, readable, and intensely interesting. American civilization is seen in its making, its growth, and just as it is today—a remarkable blending of America's past and present.

J.E.N.

MOTIVES IN FANTASY, ACTION, AND SOCIETY. Edited by John W. Atkinson. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1958, pp. xv+873.

Well-conceived and nicely organized, this book offers forty-six articles pertaining to the development of a valid method for measuring or assessing human motivation "through the content of thematic apperceptive stories and other kinds of imaginative thought." In selecting the readings, the editor states that he had in mind an integrating theme in his search for the method, namely, that a trio of virtues must be present—validity, flexibility, and generality. Those interested in motivational theory will find in the recorded research projects many vitally interesting factors, such as the effects of motivation on the content of imaginative thought, detailed manuals for content analysis of imaginative protocols producing indices of the strength of such motives as achievement, affiliation, and power, the arousal of motivation and its influence on behavior in certain situations. Sociologists are likely to be concerned with Parts IV and V which deal with the social origins of human motives and with motivation and society. The selected articles embrace many research projects and their findings in such particular areas as sex, fear, achievement, anxiety, status, and stratification. The appendices provide detailed scoring materials for assessing the achievement motive. Research students may well find the reports suggestive for further experimentation. M.J.V.

MEDICAL SOCIOLOGY. Theory, Scope and Method. By Norman G. Hawkins. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1958, pp. xx+290.

Doctor Hawkins presents a definition, a theoretical framework, a sampling of the areas of interest, and pertinent methods of study, relevant to medical sociology, as a guide to sociologists, students, and teachers in the health sciences, to help foster principles of cultural organization, definition, and specialization in this field. This is done with acknowledgement of inevitable changes in form, structure, and limitations of the field, and is not intended to be exhaustive. This book is not light reading, and assumes a good grounding in introductory sciences and an acquaintance with statistics. It consistently blends sociological, statistical, and biological terminology into one frame of reference.

Chapter One presents a historical sketch of medical sociology with the ultimate emphasis on the assertion that there is wide agreement among the people associated with the field that medical sociology is distinct from social medicine, but is, instead, a professional approach to social epidemiology, to the study of cultural factors and social relations in connection with physical and mental illnesses, and to the social principles in medical organization and treatment.

The theoretical framework of the book attempts to embrace the chemical, physical, psychological, and cultural organizations of human life, with emphasis especially on a consistent interdisciplinary balance, on the social, emotional, and cultural elements of health and sickness, on the process of breakdown, pathology, and recovery as a unity, and on providing a common ground for epidemiology and ecology, social etiology, and the analysis of health service organizations.

A medical sociologist is here viewed as a scientist, not a technician; a generalist who can conscientiously learn from specialists of other disciplines. Efforts are made to suggest some requirements and thoughts relevant to the role and status of the medical sociologist as a scientist. This book of necessity leaves much to be desired, which is largely the fruit of its being provocative, assertive, and ambitious—a much-needed step forward, demanding more to follow.

RICHARD A. NIES

EDUARD C. LINDEMAN AND SOCIAL WORK PHILOSOPHY. By Gisela Konopka. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958, pp. 220.

This effort to assemble material about a man who was a leader in social work during a formative period, and to analyze his thought and writing, provides much interesting and useful information. Eduard C.

Lindeman was a self-made educator. He entered Michigan State College at the age of 21 without a high school diploma and was graduated five years later with high honors. Throughout his life he gave evidence of great capacity for independent thinking and hard work. His major career was as a teacher of social philosophy on the faculty of the New York School of Social Work from 1924 to 1949. But his writing and participation in a wide range of social movements were an integral part of his activities throughout his life. His interest in philosophy was an outgrowth of his early concern about religion and its expression in Christian socialism, and of his association with the many leaders of social thought around the time of the first World War, such as John Dewey, Herbert Crowley and associates, Mary Parker Follet, and others.

Part I gives biographical data and background material which affected Lindeman's thought. Part II introduces the author's interpretation of social work "goals and values" prior to 1924 and, against this backdrop, discussion of Lindeman's contribution to and understanding of group and community process and values, as he developed them to the time of his death in 1953. His ability to grow and change was found in the incorporation into his philosophy of precepts and values from religion, democracy, and mental hygiene, blended into a related whole. In Part III, Mrs. Konopka undertakes her own statement of an "Integration of Value, Method, and Knowledge." A comprehensive bibliography concludes the book.

Mrs. Konopka, who is a well-known social work author and teacher at the University of Minnesota, wrote the book as her doctoral dissertation at the New York School of Social Work, Columbia University. This probably accounts for some unevenness and injection of what seems occasionally to be extraneous material. The style is sometimes informal. On the whole, however, Mrs. Konopka's book will serve a useful purpose in acquainting students with the contribution of a man whose thinking was often in advance of his times.

ARLIE JOHNSON

VALUES IN CULTURE AND CLASSROOM. By H. Otto Dahlke. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, pp. vii+572.

This is a useful book for the teacher and student teacher. It is a cultural approach to education. The style is easy and flowing; the tables, charts, and other illustrations clarify the author's points of view.

The book is divided into five parts. In the Introduction, the author defines the meaning of culture—a design for living that has three aspects:

instrumental, regulative, and directive. He discusses the school in relation to the structural elements of a society, the school as a group, the school as a group among groups, and the informal social relations that exist within the school as well as their influence upon the general aspects of education.

In the next section, the sociocultural context of education and the school is discussed at length, including a historical development of public education in the United States, the American values that shape its growth, the legal order in relation to education, and the community context of the school.

Education is also acquired through the structure and organization of the school. Modern or obsolete buildings and equipment, ceremonial occasions, teaching techniques, types of control are significant in the educational process which takes place within the school. The composition of the school population is another factor—social classes, nonwhite groups, the maladjusted and unpopular pupil, the problems that bother children and teen-agers.

Other areas of education in relation to the thesis of the book are considered: training and selection of teachers; types of school organization; special interests, controversy, attacks upon the school; legal controls regarding secularism, religion, and segregation.

The book ends in a general summary and evaluation of the "dilemma of our culture in terms of incompatible principles"—the principle of sovereignty versus the principle of natural rights. In a time of national crisis the former is likely to be in force; in a time of peace the latter is likely to prevail. Therefore, the hope of the future lies in a reinterpretation of these two sets of principles by society and the schools in order to bring forth "an era of genuine fulfillment of human potentialities."

CECIL EVVA LARSEN

THE CRIMINAL MIND: A STUDY OF COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE CRIMINAL LAW AND PSYCHIATRY. By Philip Q. Roche. New York: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 1958, pp. vi+299.

Dr. Roche's book won the fifth Isaac Ray Award of the American Psychiatric Association. It is a study of the problem of communication between criminal law and psychiatry. Conflicts between the two realms have their roots in the difference in conceptional models and in the language employed in the approach to the criminal mind. The sharpest conflicts occur when law as a moral system and psychiatry as a beginning scientific discipline are brought together in the criminal courtroom.

After general discussions of the mid-20th century setting of American criminal law and the meaning of mental illness, the author describes the criminal law and psychiatry in action during the pretrial, criminal trial, and posttrial phases. In these chapters (III, IV, and V), concrete cases are presented. As examples of the pretrial phase, the cases of "The College Boy" and "The Cleric" are described in detail, indicating the complexity of the problem of unraveling the variables that may play a part in criminal behavior. The examination of criminal trial cases reveals the greatest differences in the legal and psychiatric approaches in analyzing the conditions of crime. The posttrial case is analyzed from the point of view of the treatment process.

One of the conclusions of the author is that the function of a psychiatrist in criminal justice needs to be reassessed. He proposes that the functions of psychiatry be removed from the public (trial) phase of investigation and that they be enlarged in the pretrial and posttrial phases. The book is restricted to a discussion of the place of psychiatry in criminal justice. Other sciences, including sociology, have an important contribution to make in the investigation process.

M.H.N.

SOCIOLOGY. Second Edition. By Leonard Broom and Philip Selznick. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1958, pp. 661.

The second edition of this successful introductory text in sociology has been improved in a number of important ways: (1) a substantial proportion of the facts are brought up to date (especially true of data cited in tables, graphs, and statistics in the text), (2) a definitive statement of the thinking of George Herbert Mead on the social significance of the self is made available, (3) the chapter on Social Organization now contains a concise discussion on the nature of social roles, and, finally, the style has been improved to attain greater clarity of meaning and ease of reading.

Perhaps the chief advantage of this text is that it takes a few major concepts and provides a strong framework for organizing the essential facts and findings of sociology, which are now approaching the encyclopedic in range. Students ought to gain the habit through the use of this book, and similar books with built-in frames of reference, of thinking in terms of a few major sociological concepts. The essence of sociology is becoming a blend of a way of gathering social facts and a way of looking at these social facts. This text does a splendid job of providing the intellectual tools for the apprentice sociologist.

E.C.M.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF RELIGION. *An Introduction to Religious Experience and Behavior.* By Walter Houston Clark. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1958, pp. xii+485.

The purpose of this book is to provide an up-to-date, comprehensive treatment of the field of the psychology of religion. Part I is devoted to orientation and the definition of religion. Part II analyzes religious growth from childhood through adolescence and youth to maturity. Doubt and conflict are explained functionally; healthy-mindedness and suffering are evaluated as roads to religious growth; conversion and faith are interpreted as psychological aspects of religion. In Part III special attention is given to mysticism and to the roles of the prophet, priest, and the intellectual—topics which have heretofore received scant attention in psychologies of religion. The nature of prayer and worship and the relation of religion to abnormal psychology and psychotherapy are discussed in more traditional manner. Thus it appears that this new text offers an excellent approach and plan for a course on the psychology of religion. The bibliography is extensive and study aids are included at the end of the volume.

J.E.N.

SAMPLING OPINIONS. *An Analysis of Survey Procedures.* By Frederick F. Stephan and Philip J. McCarthy. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958, pp. xvi+451.

The authors of this book would be justified if they changed the subtitle to read "A Comprehensive Analysis of Survey Procedure." The subject matter provides extensive coverage and its treatment is intelligible. This latter characteristic is nowadays unfortunately all too rare, since so many writers in the field seem to elaborate esoteric approaches in order, perhaps, to conceal from outsiders and initiates a suspicion that all social interaction might not reduce to statistical relationships. At a time when the hangers-on of mathematics have assumed such a hieratic pose, it is refreshing to read the following on page xv of the Preface: "They [statisticians] should not, however, overlook the fact that there are in this field important elements of the sampling problem which have not yet been treated adequately by mathematical theory and which seem to offer very serious difficulties to anyone seeking at this time to treat them mathematically." Some overly zealous toilers in the field of microstatistics might well heed this admonition.

The book is divided into three parts. The first is an analysis of survey operations intended to describe and explain for readers of opinion studies the various sampling methods used. The second part associates the

methods with data accumulated from actual studies made by the authors and others. This, in the reviewer's opinion, is the outstanding section of the book, since the authors demonstrate both the strengths and the weaknesses of available sampling techniques and discuss research plans for developing competent interpretative processes. The third covers problems connected with the creation of survey designs. It is, on the whole, a practical treatment of the steps to be taken to begin, carry out, and conclude a survey. After a reading of this material the student cannot say that he has not been forewarned of the many obstacles likely to be encountered on the road to research.

HAROLD T. DIEHL

Los Angeles State College

THE SOCIOLOGY OF AMERICAN LIFE. An Introductory Analysis. By Harold Hoffsommer. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958, pp. xi+628.

This textbook is designed to supply the freshman or sophomore with a full perspective of American life and also to introduce him to the science of sociology. Those two purposes blend into an excellent analytical and descriptive portrayal of American society as the sociologist sees it. Readings have been skillfully placed at the end of each of the twenty chapters to supplement the material written by the author. This volume contains many attractive charts, graphs, and illustrations as well as excellent bibliographies and a large assortment of suggested projects which may be conducted by students in connection with major topics. The discussion possesses clarity, and the author has taken care to define and explain technical terms.

This book is divided into four parts. Part I treats of immigration, cultural backgrounds, and assimilation, population characteristics, the westward movement, rural-urban migration, and the suburban movement. Part II discusses rural locality groups, urban and suburban communities, and social differences in the United States. Part III deals with institutions and pays special attention to familial, religious, educational, economic, and political institutions in American society. Part IV covers social interaction, communication, American culture, personality and the group, and the nature of social change in America. Well written throughout and with the definitive purposes logically pursued, this book merits a favorable reception.

T. C. KEEDY, JR.

San Jose State College

SOCIAL FICTION

SEIDMAN AND SON. A Novel by Elick Moll. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1958, pp. 288.

Novelist Elick Moll has chosen to tell this delightfully droll and humorous story in the form of a monologue delivered by Morris Seidman, a New York Seventh Avenue garment manufacturer whose insight into the panorama of living in these days is gifted with both vision and prevision. Capturing and captivating a male writer sitting on a bench in New York's Central Park, Morris, like the Ancient Mariner, tells his story—the story of his wife Sophie and her psychoanalytic adventures, their teen-age daughter Jenny, their son Harold just home from Korea, and his sister Bessie with a constant ear on the telephone, to say nothing of some of his employees, especially his designer, the temperamental Miss Youssef, and his beautiful young model, Marie. Harold has upset the family by returning from Korea with some ideas of reforming the socioeconomic system which has done so well by his father, who as an immigrant has worked himself to the top of the ladder in the garment business. The novelist in a most subtle and telling manner manages to defend the economic folkways and mores of the system and to expose some of the nonsense of ill-advised leftist reformers. Morris has enjoyed every step on the way up and has had a keen eye on every eventful situation. Part of the joy in reading Morris' own account of his family and business life comes from the entertaining way in which he uses the King's English. The Jewish family life is portrayed in an unforgettable manner, reminiscent of such other stories as "I Remember Mama," "Life with Father," and even the old stage success "Potash and Perlmutter." This is a novel that is magnificently entertaining and yet gifted with a bundle of social wisdom.

M.J.V.

Sociology and Social Research

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL



Articles in Forthcoming Issues . . .

January-February and later

A Theory of Cultural Change	OTAKAR MACHOTA
Sociological Contributions of Znaniecki	THEODORE ABEL
Status and Social Tropism	E. C. McDONAGH
Ethnic Prejudice and Social Class	A. L. ROSENBLUM
Division of Labor Among Communal Groups	HENRY ZENTNER
Attitudes Toward the Family	PANOS D. BARDIS
Computers and Social Research	E. F. BORGATTA
Empathy in the Dating Situation	R. L. STEWART AND G. M. VERNON
Social Distance Scales and Stratification	F. R. WESTIE
Group Processes and Prohibition	NORMAN JACKSON AND M. SHERIF
Self-Tattooing Among Delinquents	JOHN H. BURMA
Occupations of Sociology Majors	MARGARET L. HELBRICK
Changing Attitudes in China	THEODORE AND WEN-HUI CHEN
Lower Levels of Industrial Leadership	AMITAI ETZIONI
Social Influence on Children	R. G. HUNT AND V. SYNNERDAHL
Job Satisfaction and Leisure ..	A. T. W. MATTHEWS AND B. ABU-LABAN
A Note on British Health Service	J. B. MONTAGUE, JR.
Administrative Role in Desegregation	R. J. DWYER
Social Work and Sociology	JOSEPH W. EATON

Articles in Preceding Issue . . .

September-October 1958

American Culture Themes	WILLIAM TORRENCE AND PAUL MEADOWS
Labor Under Review: 1957	MELVIN J. VINCENT
Concerning Marriage and Family Life	V. A. CHRISTOPHERSON AND J. WALTERS
Social Class in Philadelphia Methodism	FREDERICK A. SHIFFEY
Art and Communication	BRUCE A. WATSON
Anomie and Religious Orthodoxy	T. C. KEEDY, JR.
Direction of Sociological Research	EMORY S. BOGARDUS



